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HAMPTON ROADS TRANSIT

Draft Environmental Impact Statement VIRGINIA BEACH TRANSIT EXTENSION STUDY

Appendix I *Cultural Resources Reconnaissance Report*

February 2015



Cover image: courtesy of the City of Virginia Beach

ABSTRACT

HDR, Inc., has completed a Phase IA cultural resources reconnaissance survey as part of the Draft Environmental Impact Statement (DEIS) for the Virginia Beach Transit Extension Study (VBTES) in the City of Virginia Beach, Virginia. The survey was conducted on behalf of Hampton Roads Transit (HRT) and its federal partner, the Federal Transit Administration (FTA). The proposed project has four alternatives. Alternative 1A is located within the former Norfolk Southern right-of-way extending from Newtown Road eastward to the Town Center of Virginia Beach, a distance of approximately three miles. Alternative 1B is located within the former Norfolk Southern right-of-way extending from Newtown Road eastward to the Rosemont area of Virginia Beach, a distance of approximately five miles. Alternative 2 is located within the former Norfolk Southern right-of-way extending from Newtown Road eastward to the Virginia Beach oceanfront, a distance of approximately 11 miles. Alternative 3 originates in the former Norfolk Southern right-of-way from Newtown Road and extends north onto Virginia Beach Boulevard and Laskin Road as it travels east toward Birdneck Road and the Virginia Beach oceanfront, a distance of approximately 13 miles. The right-of-way (ROW) width for the project is 66 feet (20 meters). In addition to the corridor itself, other components of the project include proposed station locations, guideway, transit vehicles (light rail or bus), fare collection and passenger information systems, traffic and vehicle controls, and a vehicle maintenance and storage facility.

The fieldwork for the archaeological reconnaissance survey involved a combination of windshield survey and visual surface inspection conducted by Gray & Pape in 2010-2011. The goal of the survey was to assess existing conditions of those areas of the project that would contain subsurface impacts and determine the potential for these areas to contain archaeological resources. The architectural investigation for this report was based on two windshield-level surveys conducted in May and December 2013. Efforts were focused on summarizing the character and history of the corridor, categorizing building types and patterns of development, and identifying previously listed or eligible National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) resources in the Area of Potential Effects (APE). This report is only the first phase of identification efforts for the VBTES.

The current APE includes all four alignment alternatives being evaluated as part of the DEIS. The APE contains approximately 1,300 properties built between 1756 and the present. They are typically residential and commercial with some religious, educational, and industrial uses. For this study, because the build date for the project is anticipated to be 2020, all properties constructed in or prior to 1970 are considered historic-age. Of these 1,300 properties in the APE, 516 were built pre-1971.

After the selection of a preferred alternative, the project APE will be finalized and a full cultural resources survey of archaeological and architectural resources will be conducted following the regulations of Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) and the Virginia Department of Historic Resources (DHR) survey guidelines.

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Appendix A: APE maps

ACRONYMS

APE	Area of Potential Effect
BRT	Bus Rapid Transit
DHR	Department of Historic Resources
EIS	Environmental Impact Statement
FTA	Federal Transit Administration
HDR	HDR, Inc.
HRT	Hampton Roads Transit
LRT	Light Rail Transit
LRV	Light Rail Vehicle
NAAS	Naval Auxiliary Air Station
NAS	Naval Air Station
NHPA	National Historic Preservation Act
NPS	National Park Service
NRHP	National Register of Historic Places
NSRR	Norfolk Southern Railroad
ROW	Right-of-way
SGA	Strategic Growth Area
SHPO	State Historic Preservation Office
VBPL	Virginia Beach Public Library
VBTES	Virginia Beach Transit Extension Study
VCRIS	Virginia Cultural Resources Information System

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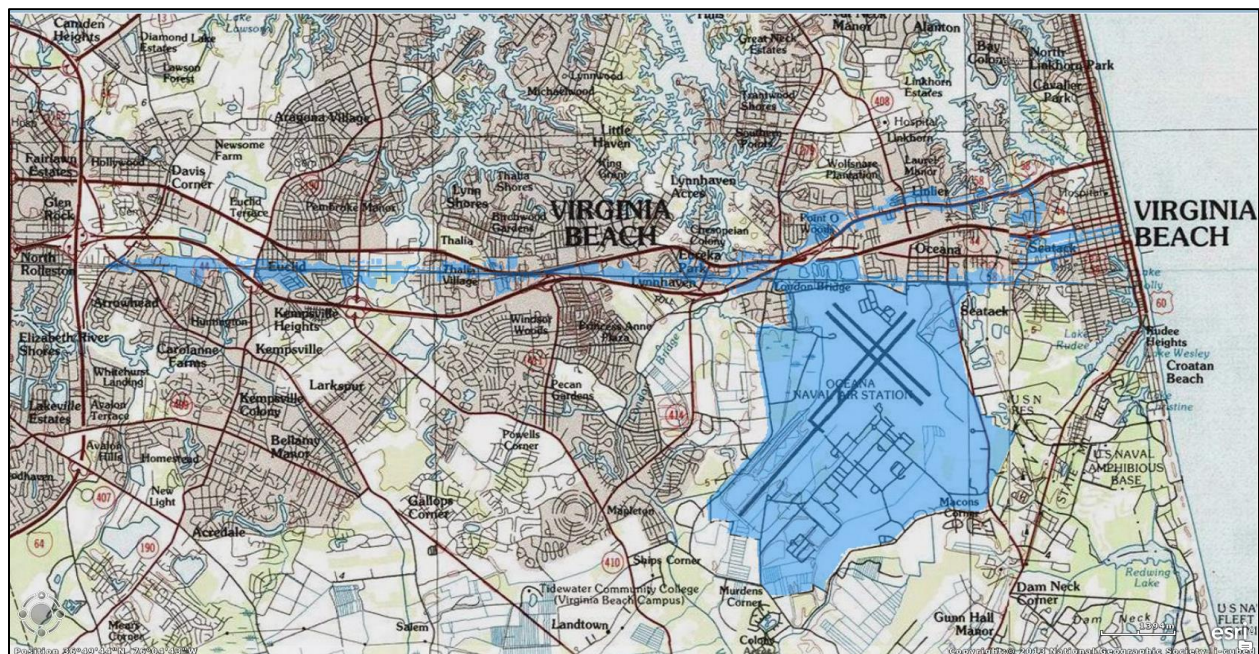
1.0 Introduction

HDR, Inc. (HDR), has completed a Phase IA cultural resources reconnaissance survey as part of the Draft Environmental Impact Statement (EIS) for the Virginia Beach Transit Extension Study (VBTES) in the City of Virginia Beach, Virginia. The survey was conducted on behalf of Hampton Roads Transit (HRT) and its federal partner, the Federal Transit Administration (FTA). The proposed project has four alternatives. Alternative 1A is located within the former Norfolk Southern right-of-way extending from Newtown Road eastward to the Town Center of Virginia Beach, a distance of approximately three miles. Alternative 1B is located within the former Norfolk Southern right-of-way extending from Newtown Road eastward to the Rosemont area of Virginia Beach, a distance of approximately five miles. Alternative 2 is located within the former Norfolk Southern right-of-way extending from Newtown Road eastward to the Virginia Beach oceanfront, a distance of approximately 11 miles. Alternative 3 originates in the former Norfolk Southern right-of-way from Newtown Road and extends north onto Virginia Beach Boulevard and Laskin Road as it travels east toward Birdneck Road and the Virginia Beach oceanfront, a distance of approximately 13 miles. In addition to the corridor itself, other components of the project include proposed station locations and a maintenance facility.

Because this project is receiving federal funding from FTA, it is considered a federal undertaking requiring FTA to comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) and its corresponding regulations (36 C.F.R. Part 800). As the lead federal agency, FTA is required to ensure that the project meets the requirements and follows the regulations of Section 106. FTA initiated Section 106 consultation with the Virginia State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO) in April 2013. A meeting was held on 25 July 2013 between representatives of the SHPO, FTA, HRT, the City of Virginia Beach, and HDR to discuss the Section 106 process and the project's Area of Potential Effects (APE). For the Draft EIS, the APE is defined as all parcels where there is proposed ground disturbance and all parcels where the existing rail corridor is visible. For proposed stations, the APE also includes any parcels where the proposed development would be visible. Following the meeting, the SHPO concurred with the proposed draft APE (Figure 1, see Appendix A for more detailed APE maps) (SHPO to FTA 26 August 2013). The SHPO's project reviewer attended a site visit of the project corridor on 6 September 2013. As agreed to by the SHPO, this report provides a historic context for the corridor and presents a general overview of historic properties in the corridor (SHPO to HRT 26 November 2013). After the completion of the Draft EIS and the selection of the preferred alternative, a full architectural reconnaissance survey and assessment of effects will be completed for all historic-age properties within the APE for the preferred alternative. Portions of this report are based on the "Revised Draft Report Phase 1A Cultural Resources Reconnaissance Survey of the Proposed Virginia Beach Light Rail Project, City of Virginia Beach, Virginia" prepared by Gray & Pape, Inc. (Gray & Pape) in 2011 for HDR and HRT (Hesse and McDonald).

This cultural resource survey was conducted in accordance with the Virginia Department of Historic Resources' *Guidelines for Conducting Historic Resources Survey in Virginia* (Virginia DHR 2011) and meets the *Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archeology and Historic Preservation* (NPS 1983). HDR staff conducted the fieldwork in March and December 2013. Jeanne Barnes served as the principal investigator, primary report author, and architectural historian, and Paul Weishar served as historian and report author for the report. Both Ms. Barnes and Mr. Weishar meet the Secretary of Interior's *Professional Qualification Standards* for architectural history.

Figure 1 | VBTES Draft APE (indicated in blue)



1.1 Study Area Description

The VBTES Corridor is located in the City of Virginia Beach's primary east-west transportation corridor. It extends approximately 11 miles from the eastern terminus of The Tide at Newtown Road eastward to the Oceanfront Resort Area. The VBTES Corridor serves as the commercial spine of the city. Residential neighborhoods and Naval Air Station (NAS) Oceana are the primary land uses north and south of the VBTES Corridor. It consists of mostly auto-oriented, low-density residential and commercial development.

The VBTES Corridor extends approximately one-half mile north and south of the former Norfolk Southern Railroad (NSRR) right-of-way (ROW), north and south of Laskin Road and east of Birdneck Road. The corridor includes Interstate 264 (I-264), Virginia Beach Boulevard and Laskin Road (U.S. 58 and Business 58), and the former NSRR ROW. The VBTES Corridor includes the

growing Virginia Beach Town Center; the Virginia Beach Convention Center; Oceanfront Resort Area hotels and tourist attractions; medical, higher education, and other cultural institutions; and residential areas. It also includes six of Virginia Beach's eight Strategic Growth Areas (SGAs), which are areas designated by the City for high-density, mixed-use development in support of long-term economic growth. The six SGAs within the VBTES Corridor are located along the City's east-west transportation corridor making them highly supportive of a fixed guideway transit system. One of the City's largest employers, NAS Oceana, is adjacent to the study area just south of the former NSRR ROW.

1.1.1 Alignment Alternatives

The VBTES considers multiple alternatives that meet the project's purpose and need as described in the Draft EIS. Alternatives include different modes and alignments as well as station locations, maintenance facility locations, and overall project lengths. Both light rail transit (LRT) and bus rapid transit (BRT) mode alternatives are under consideration. Four alignment alternatives were studied for both of the transit modes for a total of eight build alternatives (Figure 2).

- ~ **Alternative 1A: Newtown Road to the proposed Town Center Station (Town Center Alternative)** - an alternative alignment from The Tide station at Newtown Road extending east along the former NSRR ROW to a new station in the vicinity of the Town Center of Virginia Beach (approximately 3 miles).
- ~ **Alternative 1B: Newtown Road Station to the proposed Rosemont Station (Rosemont Alternative)** - an alternative alignment from The Tide station at Newtown Road extending east along the former NSRR ROW to a new station near Rosemont Road (approximately 4.8 miles).
- ~ **Alternative 2: Newtown Road Station to the proposed Oceanfront Station via the NSRR ROW (NSRR Alternative)** - an alternative alignment from The Tide station at Newtown Road extending east to a proposed station in the Oceanfront Resort Area largely following the former NSRR ROW and including segments along Birdneck Road, 17th Street, Washington Avenue, and 19th Street (approximately 12.2 miles).
- ~ **Alternative 3: Newtown Road to the proposed Oceanfront Station via Laskin Road (Hilltop Alternative)** - an alternative alignment from The Tide station at Newtown Road extending east along the former NSRR ROW and then through the Hilltop SGA on Laskin Road to a new station in the Oceanfront Resort Area via Birdneck Road and 19th Street (approximately 13.5 miles).

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Figure 2 | Alignment Alternatives

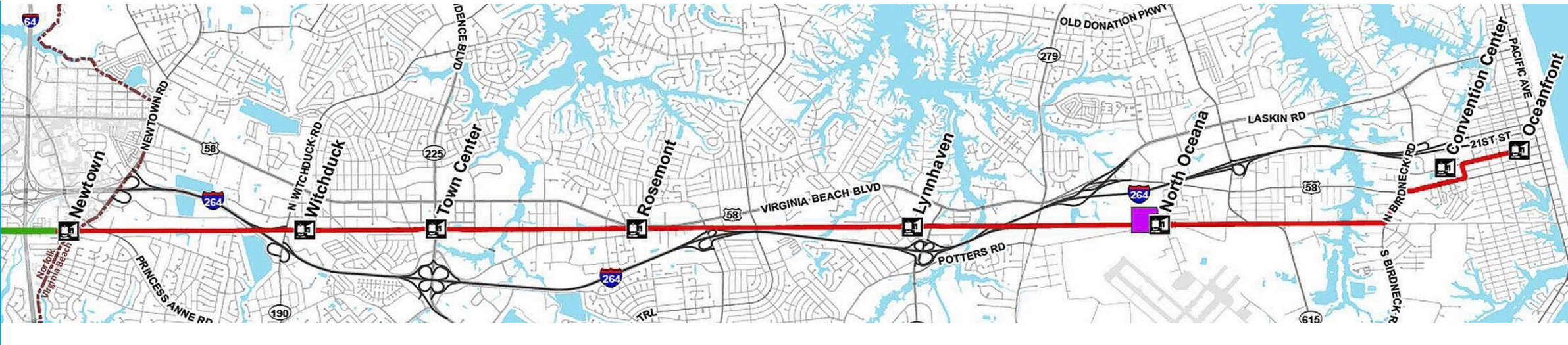
ALTERNATIVE 1A:
Newtown to Independence
(Town Center Alternative)



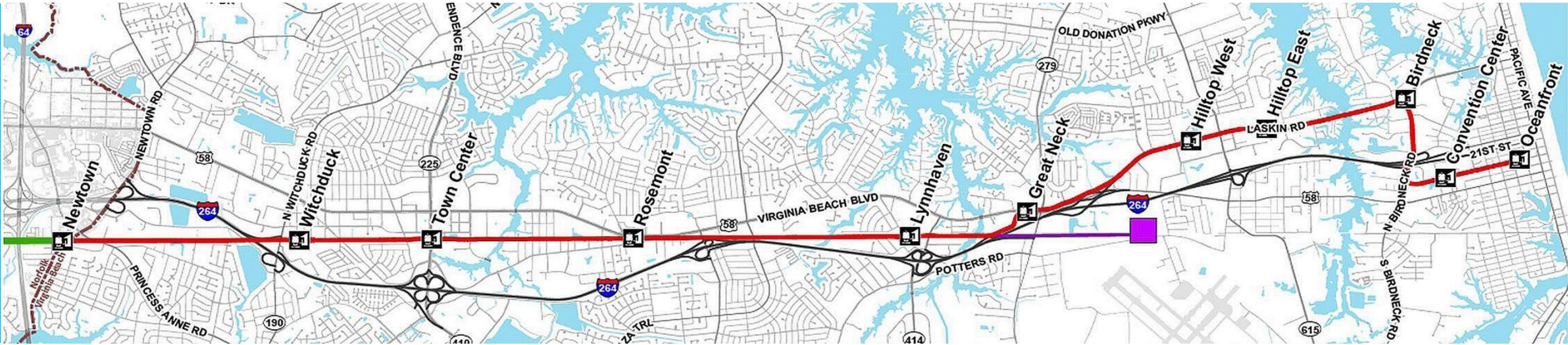
ALTERNATIVE 1B:
Newtown to Rosemont
(Rosemont Alternative)



ALTERNATIVE 2:
Newtown to Oceanfront via
NSRR ROW (NSRR
Alternative)



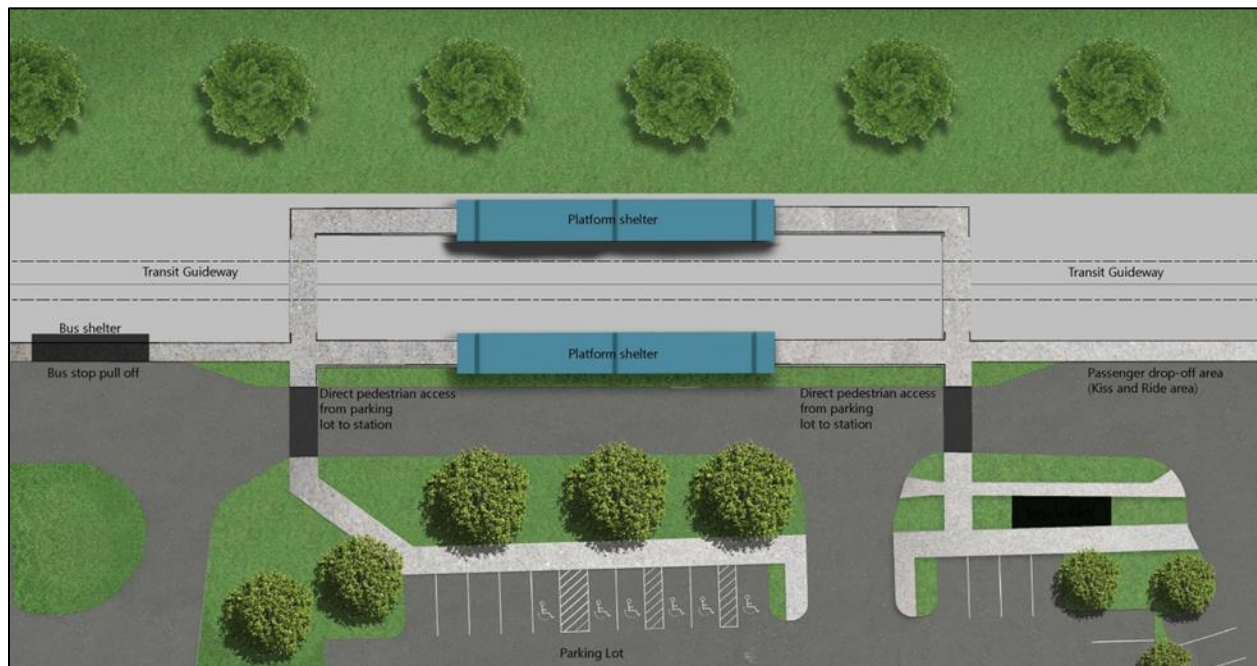
ALTERNATIVE 3:
Newtown to Oceanfront via
Laskin Road (Hilltop
Alternative)



1.1.2 Stations

Station locations have been identified for the alignment alternatives under consideration. These stations would be accessible by pedestrians, buses, cars, and bicycles. Parking would be available at many of the stations, while others would be walk-on only. The station boarding platforms are initially planned to accommodate one bus rapid transit vehicle or one light rail vehicle—approximately 90 feet in length (Figure 3). Identified sites allow for the future expansion of the platforms for use with two-car train sets or additional buses.

Figure 3 | Typical Station Platform



While this project is currently early in the planning and conceptual design phase, there will be typical characteristics incorporated in all stations. Station amenities for light rail and bus rapid transit stations would be similar to those currently found on The Tide. Standard services and amenities include:

- ~ Vicinity map (kiosk)
- ~ Bicycle parking
- ~ Bus service with bus shelters
- ~ Kiss & Ride area
- ~ Security cameras
- ~ Emergency call-box
- ~ Platform canopies
- ~ Benches
- ~ Trash receptacles
- ~ Fare vending machines
- ~ Artwork

1.1.3 System-Wide Components

There are several project components of the LRT and BRT systems that are common to all of the alternatives (Table 1). Details of these system-wide components can be found in Chapter 2 of the Draft EIS.

Table 1 | System-Wide Components

LRT System-Wide Components	BRT System-Wide Components
~ Guideway	~ Guideway
~ Light Rail Transit Vehicles (LRV)	~ Bus Rapid Transit Vehicles
~ Fare Collection and Passenger Information Systems	~ Fare Collection and Passenger Information Systems
~ Traction Power System	~ Traffic and Bus Controls
~ Traffic and Train Controls	~ Vehicle Storage and Maintenance Facility
~ Vehicle Storage and Maintenance Facility	

2.0 Prehistoric and Historic Context

The following prehistoric and historic contexts serve as a synthesis of various sources regarding the known prehistory and history of the Southern Coastal Plain of Virginia and the project corridor in Virginia Beach. Portions of this context came from the “Revised Draft Report Phase 1A Cultural Resources Reconnaissance Survey of the Proposed Virginia Beach Light Rail Project, City of Virginia Beach, Virginia” prepared by Gray & Pape, Inc., in 2011 for HRT (Hesse and McDonald). The following discussion will address all of the prehistoric and historic time periods defined by the VDHR (2011). The following historic context is designed to conform to the *Secretary of the Interior’s Standards and Guidelines for Historical Documentation* (NPS 1983) and the VDHR’s *Guidelines for Conducting Historic Resources Survey in Virginia* (2011).

2.1 Prehistoric Context

2.1.1 Paleoindian Period (14,000–10,000 B.P. [12,000–8000 B.C.])

Most of what is known about this earliest cultural development must be inferred from sparse surface recoveries of artifacts, particularly the diagnostic fluted projectile points. This information can be analyzed in conjunction with geochronological and paleoecological data to make generalized assumptions about the earliest post-Pleistocene inhabitants. Post-Pleistocene adaptive strategies were geared for coping with a harsh, but rapidly changing, environment. Formerly, it was thought that the earliest subsistence strategies focused on now-extinct mega-fauna, such as mammoth and mastodon species. However, this conclusion was drawn from many of the Paleoindian sites in the American west, where Clovis and other similar fluted points were found in association with these now-extinct game animals. The current consensus from researchers east of the Mississippi and Missouri rivers is that the Paleoindian subsistence was characterized by a more balanced hunting economy, based on the exploitation of migratory game such as caribou, and supplemented by foraged plant and animal species (Fitting 1965:103–104; Ritchie and Funk 1973:336; Johnson 1996:187).

The area occupied by the state of Virginia may have been a transitional region between the northeastern and southeastern cultural regions of Paleoindian North America. While western Virginia may have been more similar to the Northeast due to higher elevations, coastal Virginia environments were probably closer to that of the Southeast during Paleoindian times (Johnson 1996). The artifacts that characterize the Paleoindian period are the well-made fluted points, including Clovis, early Hardaway-Dalton, Quad, and Cumberland types. These artifacts are frequently made of high-quality lithic materials such as quartz crystals, jasper, chert, chalcedony, and varieties of Carolina Slate.

2.1.2 Archaic Period (10,000–3300 B.P. [8000–1200 B.C.]

The Archaic Period has traditionally represented the period in North American prehistory when human adaptations to Pleistocene environments were ending, but dependence on agriculture had not yet begun. While this category is convenient, it tends to obscure the fact that the Archaic Period represents approximately 7000 years of human adaptation to a highly dynamic environment. Early Archaic hunters and foragers were vastly different from semi-sedentary Late Archaic foragers, fishers, hunters, and early agrarians. For this reason, the Archaic Period has been divided into three sub-periods: Early Archaic, Middle Archaic, and Late Archaic.

2.1.2.1 Early Archaic Period (10,000–8500 B.P. [8000–6500 B.C.]

The end of the Pleistocene and transition into the Holocene is characterized by warmer temperatures resulting in the retreat of the glaciers and a subsequent rise in sea levels. These changes also brought about a shift in surface vegetation, with the higher, cooler altitudes retaining more of the earlier floral communities while the lower altitudes in Virginia experienced the migration of species previously found exclusively in more southern locations. Early Archaic peoples continued the basic subsistence practices of the previous period, although modified for the changing environmental conditions. The broadened Holocene subsistence base and technology provided a seasonally transient subsistence economy with larger base camps along the major stream systems and smaller, short-term camps on the minor streams and upland ridges (Phelps 1975:15).

Although the preference for high-quality lithic resources continued, the Early Archaic also marked the introduction of a variety of new lithic materials including greenstone, quartzite and more predominantly quartz, which were available on a regional scale. The fluted points of the Paleoindian period were replaced with smaller projectile points that were notched or stemmed to facilitate hafting and with blades that often exhibited serrated edges. Diagnostic points of the Early Archaic include Kirk Stemmed and Notched Palmer Corner-Notched, Fort Nottoway, Kessell, Charleston, and Amos (Custer 1990). This period also witnessed the introduction of a ground stone tool technology including implements such as mortars, pestles, and nutting stones. Chenopods, amaranth, hickory nuts, butternut, and possibly acorns have been recovered from the Crane Point site on the Eastern Shore (Lowery and Custer 1990).

Early Archaic technology in the Coastal Plain of Virginia is well represented in Sussex County, at the Slade and Fannin sites (Egloff and McAvoy 1990:71). Excavations at these sites have revealed two Early Archaic projectile point types that differ slightly from those seen at other Early Archaic sites in Virginia. The Fort Nottoway type is a large Palmer-like point occurring above smaller Palmer points at the Slade site. The Decatur-Angelico point is a small corner-notched or corner-removed ground base point similar to the Decatur point, more commonly

found in Alabama and Tennessee (Egloff and McAvoy 1990:69–70). It should be noted that the earliest Archaic sites in the Tidewater region have probably been flooded like those of the preceding period. Previous riverine base camps and coastal sites should not be expected except as resorted beachline deposits and dredged secondary depositions (Phelps 1977:62).

2.1.2.2 Middle Archaic Period (8500–5,000 B.P. [6500–3000 B.C.])

With the beginning of the Middle Archaic period, the continued climatic changes produced forest conditions approaching modern vegetation communities. The Slade site in Sussex County provides some insight into Middle Archaic lifeways in the Virginia Coastal Plain. Stanly projectile points were the most commonly associated Middle Archaic projectile points recovered from the Slade site. Carbonized hickory nuts also were present in Middle Archaic contexts. Morrow Mountain I, Morrow Mountain II, and Guilford projectile points also were recovered from the Slade site (Egloff and McAvoy 1990:72–73). This site appears to have a similar artifact assemblage as those of the Gaston, Doerschuk, and Hardaway sites originally recorded by Coe (1964).

The earliest phase of the Middle Archaic marks the use of a variety of bifurcate points, including Saint Albans, Kanawha, and LeCroy. These points later are replaced by several styles of projectile points. Listed in chronological order, these include; Stanly Stemmed, Morrow Mountain I and II, and Guilford Lanceolate. The Guilford point is representative of the latter part of the Middle Archaic. This point was found stratigraphically above the Morrow Mountain points at the Doerschuk site (Coe 1964). The fish-tailed Halifax point also is found in Virginia during the later portion of the Middle Archaic. An increase in ground stone tools during the period, especially grinding stones, would seem to indicate the increased reliance on seasonally available nuts and seeds by the Middle Archaic populations. Gardner (1990) has commented that technology during the Middle Archaic differed from previous periods in that few scrapers appear to have been used. Likewise, an increase in the use of locally available lithic material is seen in the Middle Archaic.

2.1.2.3 Late Archaic Period (5000–3200 B.P. [3000–1200 B.C.])

The population growth that began during the Early Archaic continued throughout the Late Archaic due to the persistent development of the Eastern Woodland environment. Groups became more sedentary as their reliance on seasonal floral resources increased. Evidence for storage of foods such as squash, nuts, and goosefoot appears in the Late Archaic Southeast (Steponaitis 1986:374).

The increase in use of floodplain settings documented elsewhere during the Late Archaic also appears to have increased dramatically in Coastal Virginia (Klein and Klatka 1991; Steponaitis 1986). These increasingly sedentary groups also became more reliant on fishing and other

riverine resources as evidenced by the appearance of steatite netsinkers, shell middens, and fish weirs at some Late Archaic sites (Dent 1996:184–185).

The most significant technological advance of this period is the introduction of steatite bowls. Other ground stone stools associated with the Late Archaic include polished atlatl weights and grooved axes. A variety of narrow blade side notched projectile points also characterize the lithic tool assemblage of the Late Archaic in Coastal Virginia including the Halifax, Vernon, Bare Island/Lackawaxen, and others. Also, Late Archaic or Transitional Period is associated with broad-bladed projectile points and knives belonging to a complex known as "Savannah River" (Coe 1964:123–124). The makers of these tools have shown a preference for quartzite raw material. Perkiomen points, found almost exclusively in Southeastern Virginia, have been linked to a possible Transitional Period complex that may have only had a regional effect (Mouer 1991:14).

2.1.3 Woodland Period (3200–400 B.P. [1200 B.C.–A.D. 1600])

The Woodland Period is typically represented by the introduction of a ceramic technology and an eventual reliance on agricultural resources throughout the Eastern United States. These technological and economic changes appear to have sparked broad socio-political changes throughout the Woodland Period. Although Early Woodland peoples would have closely resembled Late Archaic populations, Late Woodland Period populations had increased dramatically in size and developed complex social, political, and economic institutions. Like the preceding Archaic Period, the Woodland Period has been subdivided into three sub-periods.

2.1.3.1 Early Woodland Period (3200–1700 B.P. [1200 B.C.–A.D. 300])

Although some early agriculture was probably practiced, the diet of Early Woodland inhabitants of Eastern North America was probably similar to that of Late Archaic peoples. The cultivation of plants including goosefoot, sumpweed, maygrass, and knotwood continued as did a general increase in sedentism as seen in the Late Archaic (Steponaitis 1986:379). The Early Woodland period is differentiated from the Archaic period by the introduction of a ceramic technology. The earliest ceramics identified in the Mid-Atlantic, known as Marcy Creek Plain, are tempered with steatite, suggesting a strong link to steatite bowl-producing peoples. In some cases, fragments of steatite vessels were used as ceramic temper.

Early Woodland ceramic technology in Coastal Plain Virginia is represented by two types of clay- or sherd-tempered, flat-bottomed pottery known as Croaker Landing Pottery and Moysenec Wares. Prince George series, pebble-tempered, fabric-, cord- and net-impressed pottery also has been associated with the Early Woodland in Coastal Plain Virginia (Mouer 1991:35–36). Marcy Creek Phase Pottery in the Coastal Plain is infrequent in the tidewater area. The Croaker Landing and Moysenec wares have been lumped into an Early

Archaic category known as the McCary Complex by Mouer (1991:52, 53). This complex is best represented around the Portsmouth and Dismal Swamp areas of the Tidewater region.

Lithic tool types associated with the Early Archaic include a small Savannah River type, Potts corner-notched, Yadkin eared and other “fishtail”-like points, and the square-stemmed Calvert Points (Dent 1995:227–228). Drills, perforators, scrapers, and various bipolar flake tools are also associated with Early Archaic lithic tool assemblages. The use of subterranean features such as storage pits, refuse pits, and cooking hearths is also associated with the Early Archaic Period.

2.1.3.2 Middle Woodland Period (1700 B.P.–1000 B.P. [A.D. 300–1000])

During the Middle Woodland, there is a decrease in the number of sites along the smaller streams and an increase in sites along the major trunk streams and estuaries. Because maize agriculture was not important until the Late Woodland period, a mixed economy probably prevailed where wild food production and horticultural resources complemented each other. Shellfish, anadromous and resident fishes, deer, waterfowl, and turkey are among the important fauna in the Middle Woodland diet. Analysis of remains gathered from excavations at the Maycock’s Point site have shown the importance of aquatic resources including fish, shellfish, and plants in the James River estuary system during the Middle Woodland Period (Opperman 1992). Various nuts, amaranth, and chenopod seeds also appear to be important during this period. These items probably were harvested intensively and often stored for long periods.

Perhaps the most significant data gathered from the Middle Woodland Period in the Coastal Plain comes from the analysis of ceramics. Ceramic assemblages gathered from the Coastal Plain point to a division between and early Middle Woodland (Middle Woodland I [500 B.C.–200 A.D.]) and a late Middle Woodland (Middle Woodland II [200 A.D.–900 A.D.]). These differences are best represented north of the James River in the Coastal Plain where Popes Creek and Accokeek wares (sand and sand/quartz tempered respectively) dominate Middle Woodland I assemblages, and Mockley wares (shell-tempered) dominate Middle Woodland II assemblages (Egloff and Potter 1982; Blanton 1992; Opperman 1992). Middle Woodland occupation of the Tidewater region of the Virginia Coastal Plain has been correlated to the Mount Pleasant Phase and the Stony Creek Phase. The ceramics of these phases typically are sand tempered, with fabric-impressed and cord-marked finishes. A clay-tempered ware of the southern Coastal Plain frequently is found in the same contexts as Mount Pleasant ceramics (Blanton 1992; McLearn 1992; Phelps 1983).

Middle Woodland lithic tool assemblages include Fox Creek, Jack’s Reef, and PeeDee Pentagonal point types. There also appears to be a resurgence in the use of nonlocal lithic

raw materials during the Middle Woodland Period. Additional Middle Woodland tools include bifaces of varying shapes, a variety of bone tools, sandstone abraders, shell pendants and gorgets, polished stone gorgets, celts, and mats woven of *Juncus* (black needle-rush marsh) grass (Phelps 1983:33; Dent 1995:239–240).

The Great Neck Site (44VB007) and the Addington Site (44VB009) are both good examples of Middle Woodland (and Late Woodland) sites in the Virginia Beach area. Shell- and sand-tempered wares found at these sites correlate with Mount Pleasant, Prince George, and Mockley ceramic types. Additionally, numerous pit features appear at these sites as well as evidence of Spring, Summer, and Fall occupation of the sites (Geier et al. 1986; Hodges 1993). Remains of maize, hickory nut, walnut, acorn, grape, and huckleberry have been recovered from Middle Woodland association at the Great Neck Site (Gardner 1990).

2.1.3.3 Late Woodland Period (1000–400 B.P. [A.D. 1000–1600])

The Late Woodland Period marks an intensified use of cultivated plants, particularly maize. Various beans and squashes also were consistently used during the Late Woodland. This dependence on agriculture was tied to socioeconomic systems that were in place at the time of European contact and probably extended several centuries before contact. Carbonized remains of maize, squash, gourd, hickory nut, walnut, acorn, grape, huckleberry, persimmon, blueberry, blackgum, and amaranth have been recovered from Late Woodland associations at the Great Neck site (Gardner 1990). Still important in the Virginia Coastal Plain, however, was the abundant aquatic resources available in the estuarine environment. Late Woodland peoples throughout the region also continued to rely on large mammals, small mammals, and birds (Dent 1995:251).

The social organization in the Virginia Coastal Plain at the time of European Contact has been described as a complex Chiefdom. This type of social organization revolved around a central paramount chief and several chiefs under this figure. Palisaded villages were common during the Late Woodland period, but non-palisaded villages, hamlets, and temporary camps also were common. The Great Neck Site (44VB007), just a few miles from the project area, was one such palisaded village. This site is believed to be the location of the Chesapeake identified in 1580 by the English (Turner 1992:109).

By the Late Woodland Period, some degree of diversity can be seen among the ceramic material culture of inhabitants of the Virginia Coastal Plain. In part, this diversity can be marked by a difference between peoples south of the James River and peoples north of the James River. Shell-tempered, fabric-impressed, incised, and plain Townsend ware is common in the Late Woodland Period north of the James River. Potomac Creek ware, a sand/crushed quartz-tempered, cord marked, and plain ceramic also is widespread in the

northern Virginia Coastal Plain, particularly by the end of the Late Woodland Period. Further south, along the Virginia/North Carolina border, sand/crushed quartz-tempered, and simple stamped Gaston ware is common. Cashie and Branchville ceramics may be an outgrowth of this ceramic type. In the coastal area and along the lower James River, Roanoke ware is more common in the Late Woodland period. This shell-tempered, simple-stamped ceramic is more commonly found in the Tidewater region than previously mentioned ceramics (Turner 1992:102–104).

Projectile points tend to be small triangular arrow points with some basal variations during the Late Woodland Period. Examples of these points include the Yadkin (Middle to early Late Woodland), the Gaston, the Madison, the Roanoke, and the Clarksville triangular points. Copper and shell were also important materials used during the Late Woodland Period and tended to be associated with the accumulation of wealth in those societies. Bone tools and ceramic pipes also increased in the archaeological record during the Late Woodland Period. Ossuary burials also are common during the Late Woodland along the coast of Virginia and North Carolina.

At the time of European contact, the Tidewater region of the Virginia Coastal Plain mostly was inhabited by people who were associated with the Powhatan chiefdom. These peoples spoke Algonquian and were dispersed at villages and smaller sites along the estuary of the Chesapeake Bay. The Inner Coastal Plain was the territory of the Tuscarora, Meherrin, and Nottoway. The Tuscarora occupied the Inner Coastal Plain from the Roanoke to the Neuse Rivers and from the western estuarine border to the fall line. The Meherrin and Nottoway occupied the river drainages of the same names, both tributaries of the Chowan River in the southern Virginia, and the northern North Carolina Coastal Plain.

2.2 Historic Context

2.2.1 Settlement to Society (1607-1750)

In 1606, James I commissioned the Virginia Company of London to establish an English settlement in North America. Five hundred passengers aboard a flotilla of three ships arrived at the outflow of the James River in 1607, and sailed upriver to found the English settlement at Jamestown. (Jester 1961:3). The English preferred to settle further inland on fertile ground where they could defend themselves from the perceived threat from the Spanish. Because the Cape Henry and Old Point Comfort areas were considered too exposed for settlement, it was not until the 1630s that settlers began to move into the Hampton Roads area (Frazier Associates 1992:4). Earlier attempts had been made by Europeans to settle in the Chesapeake. The Spanish had attempted to establish an outpost in the 1560s and made repeated visits to

the area through the 1570s. The English had settled the ill-fated colony at Roanoke Island to the south in 1586 (Parramore 1994:15).

Early English settlements in the Chesapeake region occurred along the Elizabeth, Lynnhaven, and North Landing rivers. The first settlers in what is now Virginia Beach were Adam Thoroughgood, William Julian, Francis Mason, and Thomas Willoughby. In 1635, Thoroughgood received a grant of 5,350 acres (2165 hectares) at the mouth of the western branch of the Lynnhaven River due to bringing 105 English men and women to settle his land (Holm et al. 1995:13). Thomas Willoughby landed in Virginia in 1610 at the age of nine, and by his death in 1658, owned a substantial tract in the area now known as Willoughby and Ocean View (Tucker 1972:5).

When the original shires were formed in the Virginia colony in 1634, the area that is now Virginia Beach and Norfolk was part of Elizabeth City Shire, which covered both sides of Hampton Roads and had a population of 1,670. In 1637, that portion south of Hampton Roads became New Norfolk County, which was subsequently divided into Upper and Lower Norfolk counties. Princess Anne County was formed in 1691 from the eastern section of Lower Norfolk County, and by 1695, the boundaries of the county were made the same as that of Lynnhaven Parish. At that time, Princess Anne County had a population of 2,000 residents. The first county seat was Lynnhaven Town, which was laid out in 1665 by Argoll Thoroughgood (Frazier Associates 1992:5). The county was named for Anne, the younger daughter of King James II (House of Stuart), who later became Queen of Great Britain and Ireland. Princess Anne County covered 326 square miles and had a continuous shoreline from the North Carolina-Virginia border along the Atlantic coast north to Cape Henry and west along the Chesapeake Bay to Little Creek Inlet.

The population began to shift further south on the Lynnhaven River, which was the initial focus of settlement in Princess Anne County. In 1697, New Town was laid out on 51 acres (20.6 hectares) on the Eastern Branch of the Elizabeth River, but it was not formally established until 1740 when one-half acre (0.2-hectare) lots were platted. It became one of the major ports in the area and had an English garrison. The courthouse was relocated here in 1751, and it became the major business and social center of the county. By the 1770s, now known as Newtown, it had begun to decline as the larger port in nearby Norfolk grew (Frazier Associates 1992:5).

In this early phase of Hampton Roads settlement, agriculture and water-related activities such as fishing and crabbing dominated life. Tobacco was the initial cash crop, but crops were diversified as the soil became depleted. Timber harvesting and the production of naval stores such as tar, pitch, and turpentine became common industries. As elsewhere in the colony, the

presence of navigable waterways allowed tobacco and other exports to be shipped directly from individual plantations suppressing the development of trading centers and towns.

2.2.2 Colony to Nation (1750-1789)

Settlement in pre-Revolutionary Princess Anne County continued as George Kemp laid out a settlement called Kempe's Landing at the end of the eastern branch of the Elizabeth River. At this strategic location, located near the present-day intersection of Princess Anne, Kempsville, and Witchduck Roads, he established a trading post for ships coming from North Carolina. By 1740, Kempe's Landing was designated as a tobacco inspection site, and tobacco warehouses lined the banks of the village. The Princess Anne County courthouse was moved here in 1778, and the town was incorporated as Kempsville in 1783 (Frazier Associates 1992:5).

On the eve of the American Revolution, many Norfolk and Princess Anne County citizens had loyalist sympathies because of their mercantile connections with England. In spite of this sentiment, between 1774 and 1775 a number of public meetings were held to support the revolutionary cause, and a committee of public safety was formed. In June 1775, the royal governor, Lord Dunmore, fled Williamsburg and established himself aboard a frigate in the Elizabeth River. From there, he could harass shipping and bring pressure on the patriots (Parramore et al. 1994:87). Loyalist sympathizers in Princess Anne County provided a base of support for Dunmore until his troops were defeated at the Battle of Great Bridge on December 9, 1775. After the battle, many of the loyalists fled Norfolk, and the city was occupied by Virginia troops. The arrival of Colonel Robert Howe with North Carolina provincial troops extinguished Dunmore's hopes of recovering the situation. On New Year's Day, 1776, British warships began a bombardment of Norfolk that continued until the following day. The shelling started fires that burned two-thirds of the town and in February 1776, the remainder of the town was destroyed by the Americans whose hope was to deprive the British of shelter and supplies. Although Dunmore abandoned Virginia in 1776, the British continued to raid Princess Anne County until 1781 (Holm et al. 1995:14).

2.2.3 Early National Period (1789-1830)

A lighthouse erected at Cape Henry in 1792 was among the post-Revolutionary improvements authorized by the new United States government. A series of forts to protect the young nation's harbors also was commissioned and Fort Norfolk, which had been built by the State of Virginia shortly after the burning of Norfolk in 1776, became the headquarters for the defense of Norfolk during the War of 1812. War also came to the shores of Princess Anne County during this period. The British once again subjected residents of Princess Anne County to periodic raids, and numerous slaves escaped to British ships (Holm et al. 1995:14). In spite of the war, the county continued to grow. The county seat was moved for a fifth and final time, and the

village of Princess Anne soon grew up around it. A new courthouse and jail were completed in 1823. Several inns and business were established here, but it primarily remained a small trading community throughout most of the nineteenth century.

It was also during this period that several of the historic houses near the project corridor in Virginia Beach were built. The Francis Land House (DHR # 134-0031), which stands just north of the project corridor, was built in the late eighteenth century. It is a substantial dwelling constructed in Flemish bond brick and has a gambrel roof. Upper Wolfsnare (DHR # 134-0034), constructed in 1759, is located within the project area and originally stood on 7,000 acres (2832 hectares). The building is an example of a local house type that was once common in the Virginia Beach area. Unfortunately, most of the land around the house has been disturbed by mid-twentieth century development.

2.2.4 Antebellum Period (1830-1860)

Princess Anne County continued to have an agricultural-based economy through the mid-nineteenth century. The agricultural depression of the 1830s was felt strongly in the Chesapeake region. The population of Princess Anne County declined drastically from 9,102 in 1830 to 7,285 in 1840 as fertile lands opened up further west. The county's population did not reach its 1830 level again until nearly 50 years later. Turkeys, oysters, timber, and corn continued to be the major agricultural products (Holm et al. 1995:15). The agricultural depression resulted in diversification in farming throughout Princess Anne County in the 1840s. The adjustments were successful and the county soon ranked first in the state in hay production, third in poultry, and fifth in fisheries (Frazier Associates 1992:21).

The 1835 *Martin Gazetteer* documented Kempsville (the area surrounding the intersection of Princess Anne Road, Kempsville Road, and South Witchduck Road) as the largest village in Princess Anne County with 200 inhabitants and 27 dwellings (Frazier Associates 1992:6). The village was situated at the head of the Eastern Branch of the Elizabeth River and served as a port to and from the western and central portions of Princess Anne County until overland transportation improved (City of Virginia Beach 2006: 4-5). Princess Anne village, where the court house was located, had 150 inhabitants, the county buildings, and 17 houses. This village served as a trading center for the surrounding agricultural lands. London Bridge, near the project area, was listed as a post office in the *Gazetteer* but not described further (Frazier Associates 1992:6).

2.2.5 Civil War (1861-1865)

At the onset of the Civil War, the U.S. government had several naval vessels moored in the Elizabeth River, as well as naval arms and stores at the Gosport Navy Yard. As Federal forces

retreated in April 1861, they burned and destroyed as much as they could to keep resources out of the hands of the Confederates. The federal government remained entrenched at Fort Monroe, located at the mouth of the James River. In May 1861, a skirmish at Sewall's Point erupted when the U.S.S. Monticello shelled the area during the construction of a Confederate fort there. During the first year of the Civil War, the greater Hampton Roads area was dominated by Confederate troops. However, after the standoff battle between the Union's ironclad Monitor and Confederate Virginia's Merrimac on March 9, 1862, Union forces regained control of the area. Norfolk was evacuated by the Confederates on May 10, 1862. Hampton Roads remained under Union control for the remainder of the Civil War.

During the war, the federal government imposed harsh restrictions on civilians. Most slaves fled and agricultural productivity plummeted for want of labor. Although Princess Anne County was spared the bloodshed experienced by many other Virginia counties, by the end of the Civil War, there was a depleted work force, no civilian government, and a largely destroyed transportation infrastructure. Outside of Norfolk and the surrounding military installations, the land remained agricultural with little development. Kempsville and London Bridge were small communities set in the vast stretches of countryside that characterized the region east of Norfolk during the Civil War.

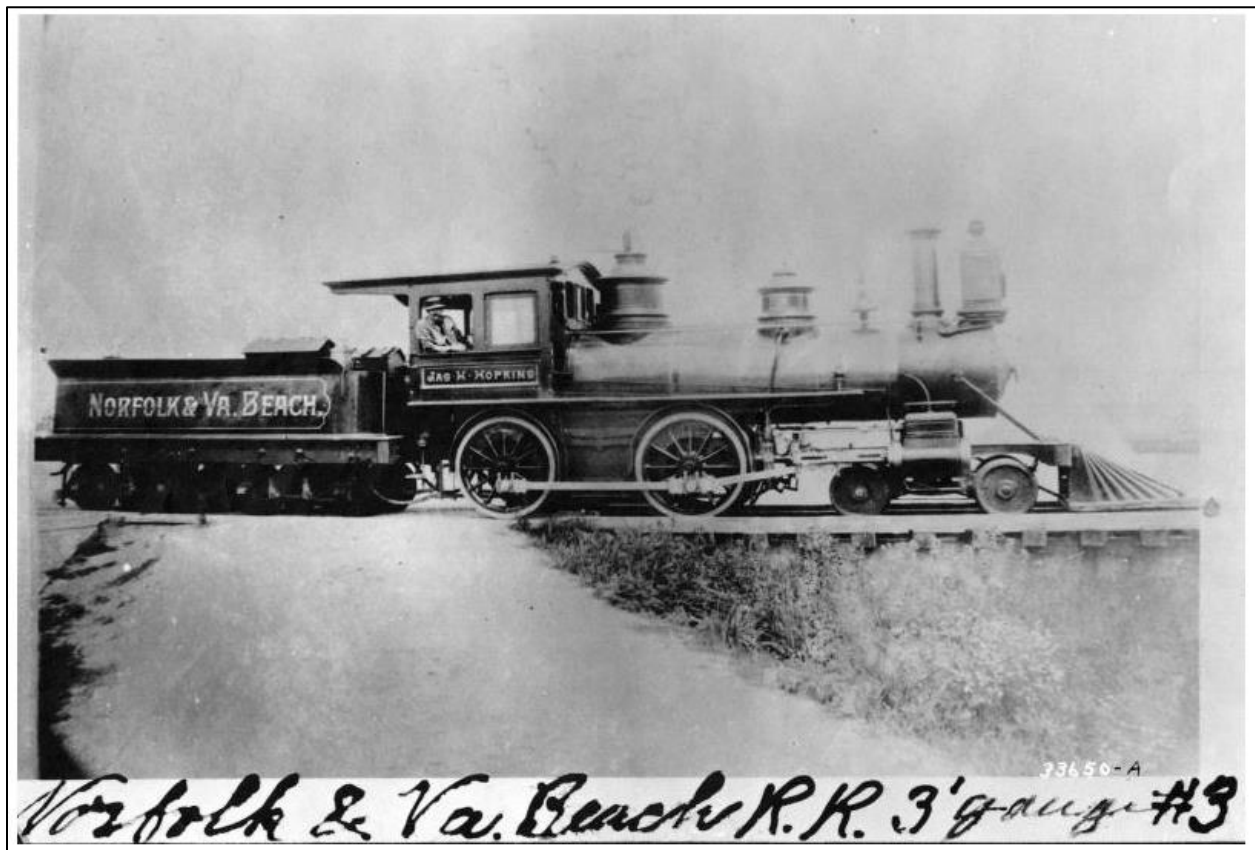
2.2.6 Reconstruction and Growth (1865-1917)

Federal forces remained in the Hampton Roads/Tidewater area until about 1870 to administer a reconstruction government and assist the newly freed slaves. The new state constitution of 1867-1868 established a new form of government for Virginia counties, consisting of a county judge and board of supervisors. Princess Anne County was divided into three districts in 1870: Seaboard, Pungo, and Kempsville.

During Reconstruction, agriculture continued to dominate the landscape of Princess Anne County and the larger Hampton Roads area. By the late nineteenth century, Norfolk and Princess Anne County were leaders in truck farming. Farmers benefitted from an early growing season and improving distribution system. At the turn of the twentieth century, over half of all greens and potatoes consumed along the Atlantic coast cities came from the region. Due to the seasonal nature of truck farming, farmers were dependent on farm labor for harvesting. Tenant farms and domestic servants provided much of the labor (Frazier Associates 1992:21-22). Fisheries continued in importance, led by Lynnhaven oysters which were "considered bland but had the distinction of being extremely large" (Kurlansky 2007:237). Virginia oystermen along the Chesapeake Bay went head-to-head with New York and New Jersey producers, who were the leading exporters of the wildly popular delicacy.

Improvements in transportation at the turn of the twentieth century resulted in rapid growth and development of the Hampton Roads area. The primary catalyst for the development of Virginia Beach in the late nineteenth century into a resort community was the construction of a railroad that connected Virginia Beach with the urban community of Norfolk and beyond. Under the leadership of Colonel Marshall Parks, The Virginia Beach Railway began service on a narrow gauge line on July 17, 1883 between Norfolk and Virginia Beach. Parks and a group of investors simultaneously purchased oceanfront property and erected a wooden clubhouse at Seventeenth Street, which was moved the following year to nearby Eighteenth Street and Atlantic Avenue and renamed the Virginia Beach Hotel. Despite the popularity of the hotel, Colonel Parks and his investment group faced financial difficulties, and in 1887, the railroad, hotel, pavilion, and 1,500 acres of oceanfront property were sold at public auction for \$170,000 to C. W. Mackey (Virginia Beach Public Library [VBPL] 2006:84). A Pittsburgh native, Mackey served on the board of the Norfolk and Virginia Beach Railroad and Improvement Company. The clubhouse, named the Virginia Beach Hotel and Pavilion, reopened in 1887 under Mackey's direction.

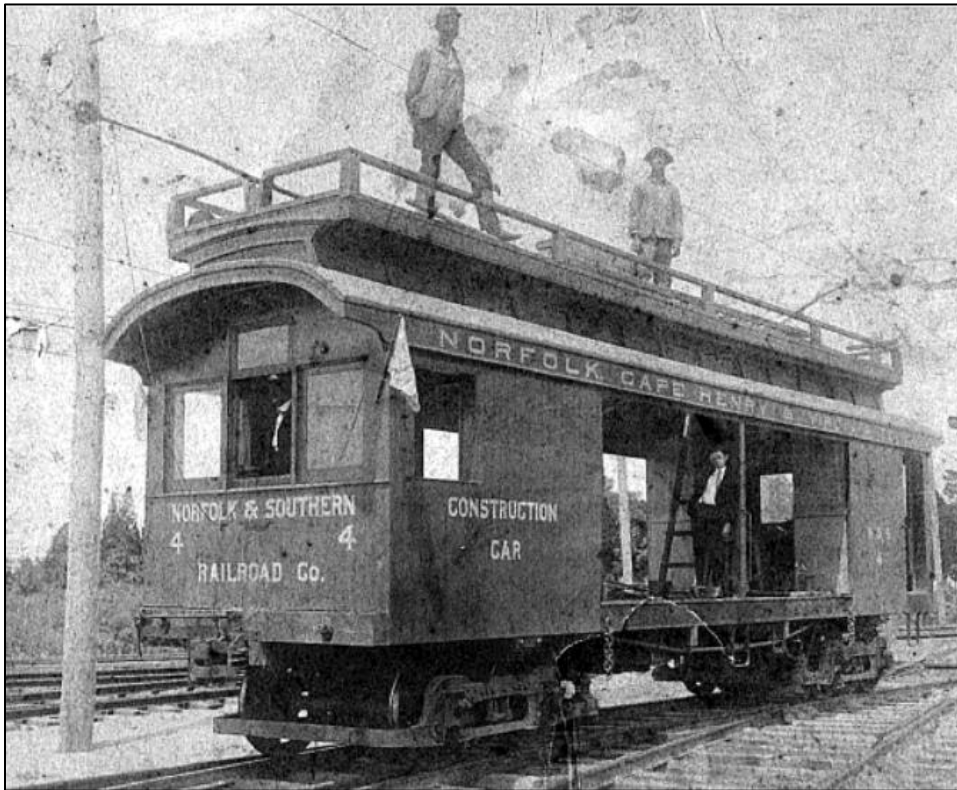
Figure 4 | Norfolk & Virginia Beach Railroad, No. 3 Steam Engine (NS 1284, Norfolk and Western Historical Photograph Collection, Virginia Tech)



In 1888, Mackey changed the name of his hotel to the Princess Anne Hotel after investing more than \$250,000 in improvements. An announcement in the *Public Ledger* declared it “a magnificent hotel...with electric lights...an elevator...bath houses with a veranda... a good ballroom”. Adding to the spectacle of the renovated hotel was a new wooden boardwalk. Lots were soon platted in Virginia Beach and several cottages were constructed the same year. In 1897, Virginia Beach residents welcomed the opening of their first grocery store, operated by J. W. Bonney. This store was joined shortly thereafter by a drugstore, a hardware store, and several general stores (VBPL 2006:86). Several residential neighborhoods were also established during this time and are primarily clustered along the 16th and 22nd Street corridors as well as in the southern portion of the city along Lake Drive. A rare extant reminder of the town’s early development is the Barclay Cottage (DHR # 134-0443, located just outside of the project APE. The cottage was constructed in 1895 by the Norfolk and Virginia Beach Railroad as a clubhouse for a golf course that was never constructed. The two-story wood-frame building features a wraparound two-story porch. It was opened as a guesthouse in 1917, making it the longest continuously operating lodging facility still in operation in the Virginia Tidewater area (Barclay Cottage 2014).

In 1902, a rival of the Norfolk and Virginia Beach Railroad and Improvement Company, the Chesapeake Transit Company, ran a standard-gauge line from Norfolk north to Cape Henry, hoping to develop Cape Henry in much the same fashion as Virginia Beach. However, competition from Virginia Beach rendered this effort fruitless, and by 1904, Norfolk and Southern acquired the Chesapeake Transit Company and consolidated the two lines into a single standard-gauge route. This line became known as the loop route, creating a continuous loop of electric track linking Norfolk and Virginia Beach via Cape Henry. This route effectively connected Virginia Beach to much of the country. By 1906, sixteen passenger trains ran daily between the beach resorts and Norfolk. Along with passengers, the line supported local farmers by transporting produce on a southern branch line to Norfolk and Virginia Beach (VBPL 1996:91). In 1906, Virginia Beach was incorporated as a town; the following year the Virginia Beach town hall building opened, housing the volunteer fire department, the town's first school, and a jail, in addition to the town's offices (VBPL 2006:87).

Many of the original late nineteenth-and early twentieth-century hotels, shops, and houses are no longer extant in and around the Virginia Beach oceanfront, having been razed for modern development. By 1924, Virginia Beach was known throughout much of the country for its resort attractions, bathing beach, and shopping center; its success had it competing directly against Florida resorts for tourists (Frazier 1992:7; Holm et al. 1995:16).

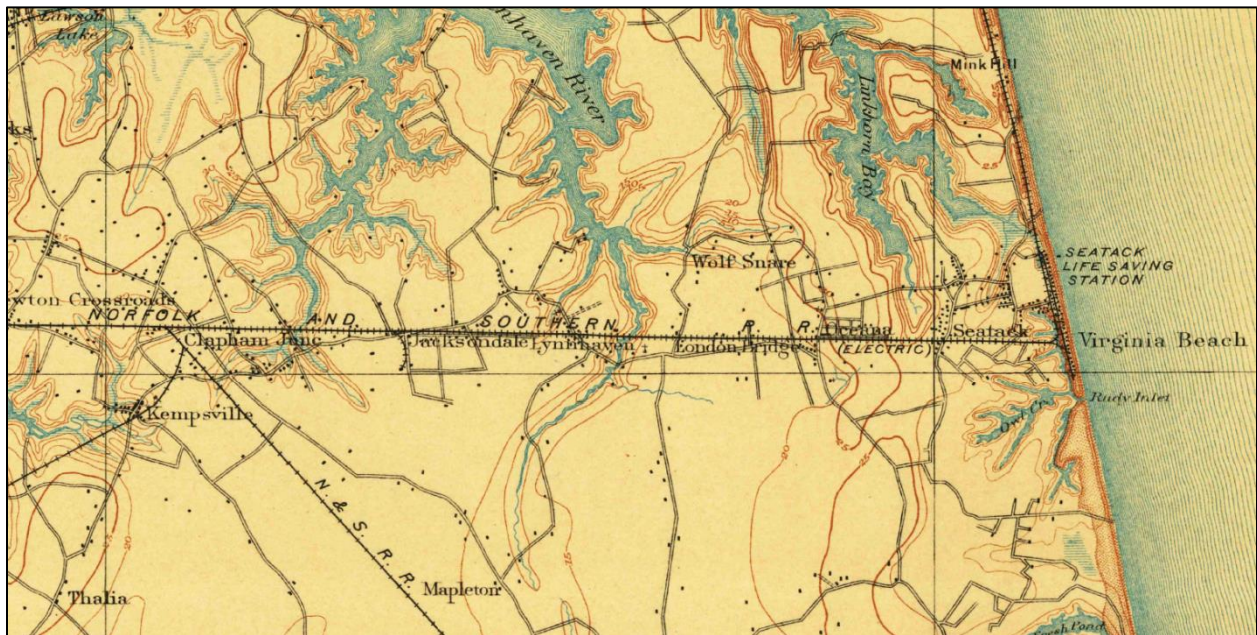
Figure 5 | Norfolk and Southern Construction Car, 1904 (Varsinske 2011:13)

A by-product of the increased development of Virginia Beach and the introduction of a rail line that connected Princess Anne County farmers with the Norfolk market was the establishment of Tunis in the late nineteenth century. This small village developed as the lone oasis on the rail line linking Norfolk and Virginia Beach. The land between urban Norfolk and the popular oceanfront of Virginia Beach was entirely agricultural. This whistle stop started for the Tunis Lumber Company that owned much of the land in that area. In 1892, the village's name was changed to Oceana and two blocks were platted by B. B. Brock. Here he constructed a few single-family dwellings, thereby attracting people to the community. The small village supported two general stores, a blacksmith shop, a harness and shoe shop, a doctor's office, and a livery (Ferebee and Wilson 1924:30). In 1902, I. E. Youngblood and his son purchased 250 acres of land and platted much of what would become Oceana (Frazier Associates 1992:7). This marked the first wide-scale development of Princess Anne County between Norfolk and Virginia Beach, and would be a harbinger of changes to come in the mid-twentieth century.

In 1907, at the western end of the Norfolk and Southern line, the Jamestown Exposition opened in Norfolk, commemorating the 300th anniversary of the first permanent English settlement in America. The exposition was held at Sewall's Point, which in 1917 became the home of the U.S. Naval Operating Base, now known as Naval Station Norfolk. By the beginning of the twentieth

century Norfolk was an urban center of commerce, served by multiple rail lines with the advantages of a deep-water port. Development spread out from downtown following the rail lines and was clustered around the train stations. Despite the growth in and around Norfolk, development along the Norfolk and Southern Railroad line out to Virginia Beach remained sparse (Figure 6).

Figure 6 | 1907 Special Topographical Map of Norfolk (USGS 1907)



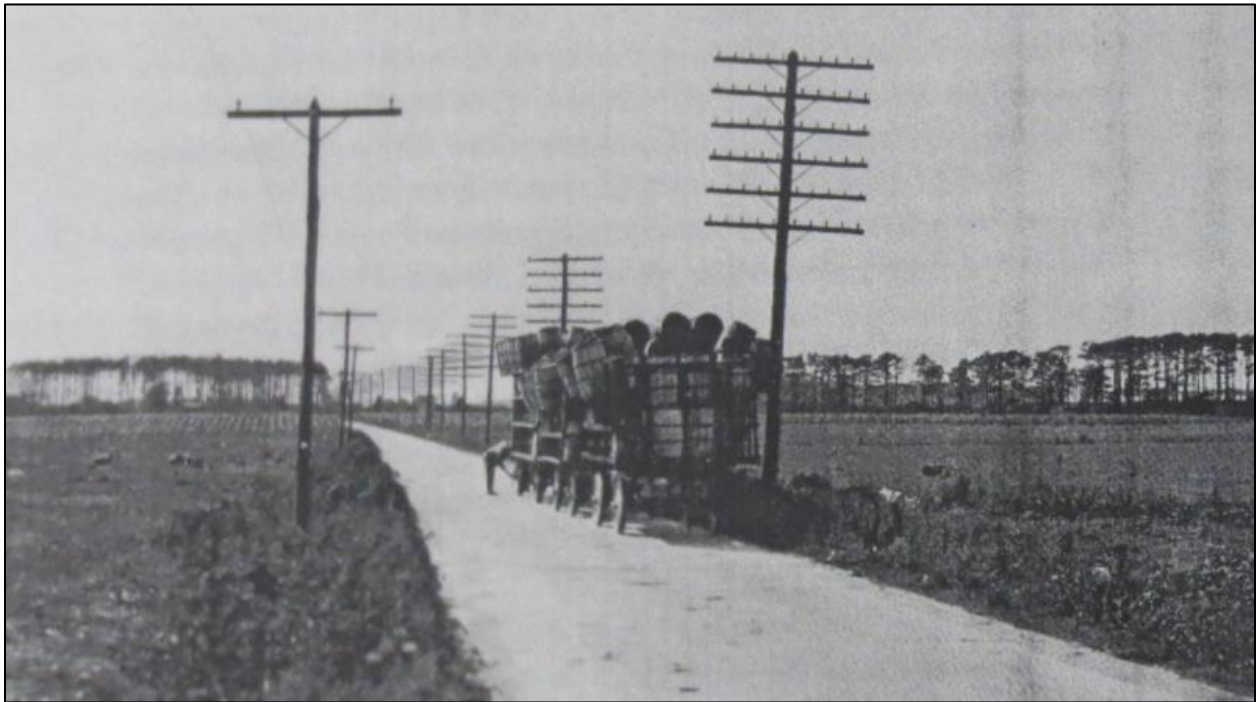
Although the military had established a presence in Norfolk, the end of the nineteenth century saw the beginnings of a widespread investment by the government in installations to the east of Norfolk that were, and continue to be, integral to the fabric of the region. Between 1874 and 1878, five life-saving stations were constructed along the coast by the Revenue Marine or United States Life-Saving Service, which later combined to become the U.S. Coast Guard. The stations were located at Seatack (Virginia Beach), Dam Neck Mills, Little Island, False Cape, and Cape Henry. In 1912, Virginia established the State Rifle Range, which later became the National Guard, near present-day Croatan Beach. In 1914, the Virginia General Assembly ceded 343.1 acres of beachfront at Cape Henry to the U.S. Government for the establishment of an oceanfront installation, designated two years later as “Fort Story” to honor General John Patten Story.

2.2.7 World War I to World War II (1917-1945)

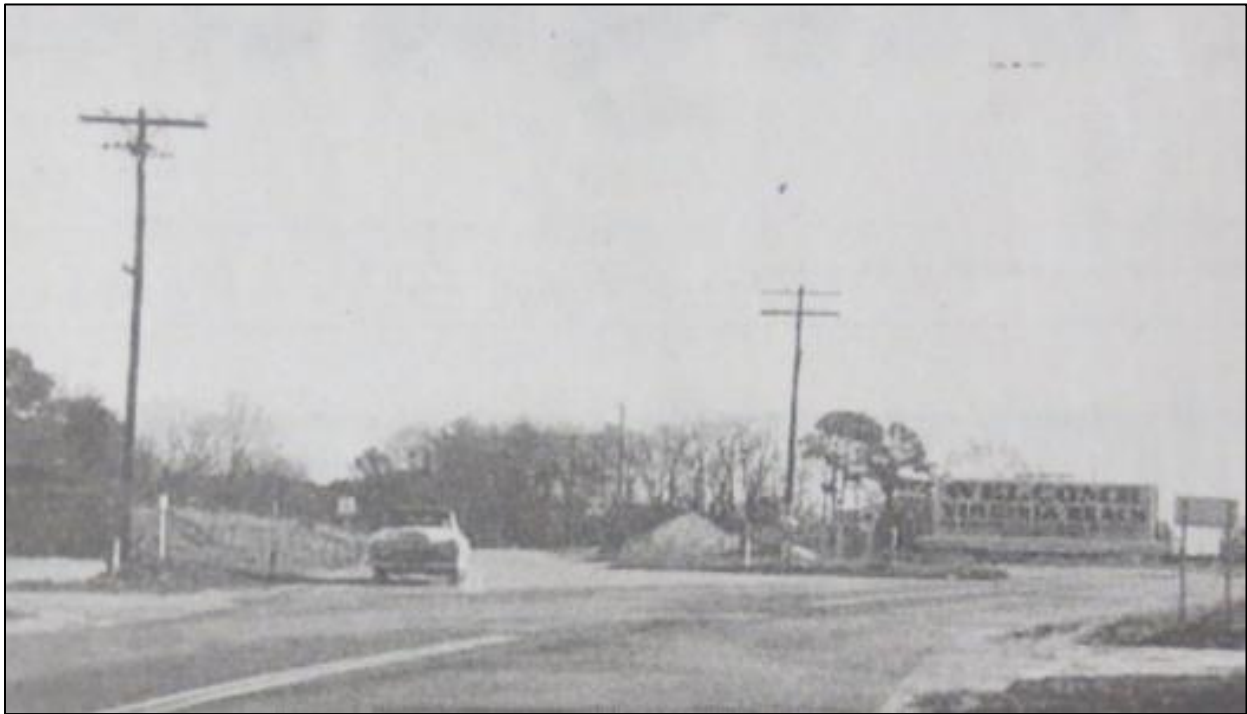
The United States entered World War I in April 1917 and construction began almost immediately on a Navy installation on the site of the 1907 Jamestown Exposition. Although naval officers agreed during the exposition that the site was ideal for naval activity, Congressional approval did not occur until the onset of World War I. The 474-acre property was purchased for \$1.2 million and assigned to Rear Admiral Dillingham to oversee its development. By 1918, more than 35,000 officers and enlisted men were assigned to the installation (Militarybases 2014).

Despite the population growth in nearby Norfolk, Princess Anne County grew slowly in the post-World War I years. There were 13,626 residents in 1920, and by 1930 that number was only 16,282. Other than development along the rail line, Princess Anne County remained sparsely populated through the 1930s, having only about 20,000 residents in 1939 (Holm et al. 1995:16). However, the small community of Oceana continued to grow and develop in the first quarter of the twentieth century thanks to its proximity to the beach and its location on the rail line. In 1908, the first county high school was built in Oceana, supplemented by agricultural and normal schools during the 1920s. By 1924, Oceana had approximately 350 residents and had become the commercial center for the predominantly agricultural county. In 1920, there were 1,317 farms in Princess Anne County, with 616 farms having at least 100 acres (Ferebee and Wilson 1924:57). The timber industry continued to flourish as the demand for raw materials increased through the early twentieth century. In 1924, Oceana supported four general stores, a garage, blacksmith shop, meat market, a fish and oyster market, a lunch room, and one brick manufacturing company (Ferebee and Wilson 1924:31).

In 1926, Jacob Laskin and a group of real estate developers from New York remodeled the Seaside Casino (opened 1912) at a cost of about \$100,000 and constructed an office-theater complex, a hotel, and several apartment buildings. Laskin Road, which provided access to the development, was initially a privately owned road. The development group wanted to provide reliable access for their new 530-acre Bay Shore residential development that was planned along both sides of Laskin Road (Figure 7). However, development did not materialize as expected, and the following year Laskin Road became a public road and was immediately embraced by the populace as a direct route to the oceanfront and Seaside Park (*The Virginian-Pilot* 2003). In 1927, The Cavalier Hotel, a luxurious and exclusive resort opened to much fanfare in Virginia Beach.

Figure 7 | Laskin Road, circa 1930s (Virginia State Library and Archives)

Popularity of the automobile was limited in the region due to an inadequate road system. Prior to the introduction of the automobile, the railroad was the primary means of transportation. It was not until 1913 that the first concrete roads were built in Virginia Beach. In 1921, State Route 58, along the route currently known as Virginia Beach Boulevard, became the first hard-surface route between Virginia Beach and Norfolk. Over 800 automobiles took part in the opening ceremony for the new roadway, which ended with a reception at a casino in Virginia Beach (*The Virginian-Pilot* 1921).

Figure 8 | Virginia Beach Boulevard circa 1940s (*The Virginian-Pilot* 23 June 1999)

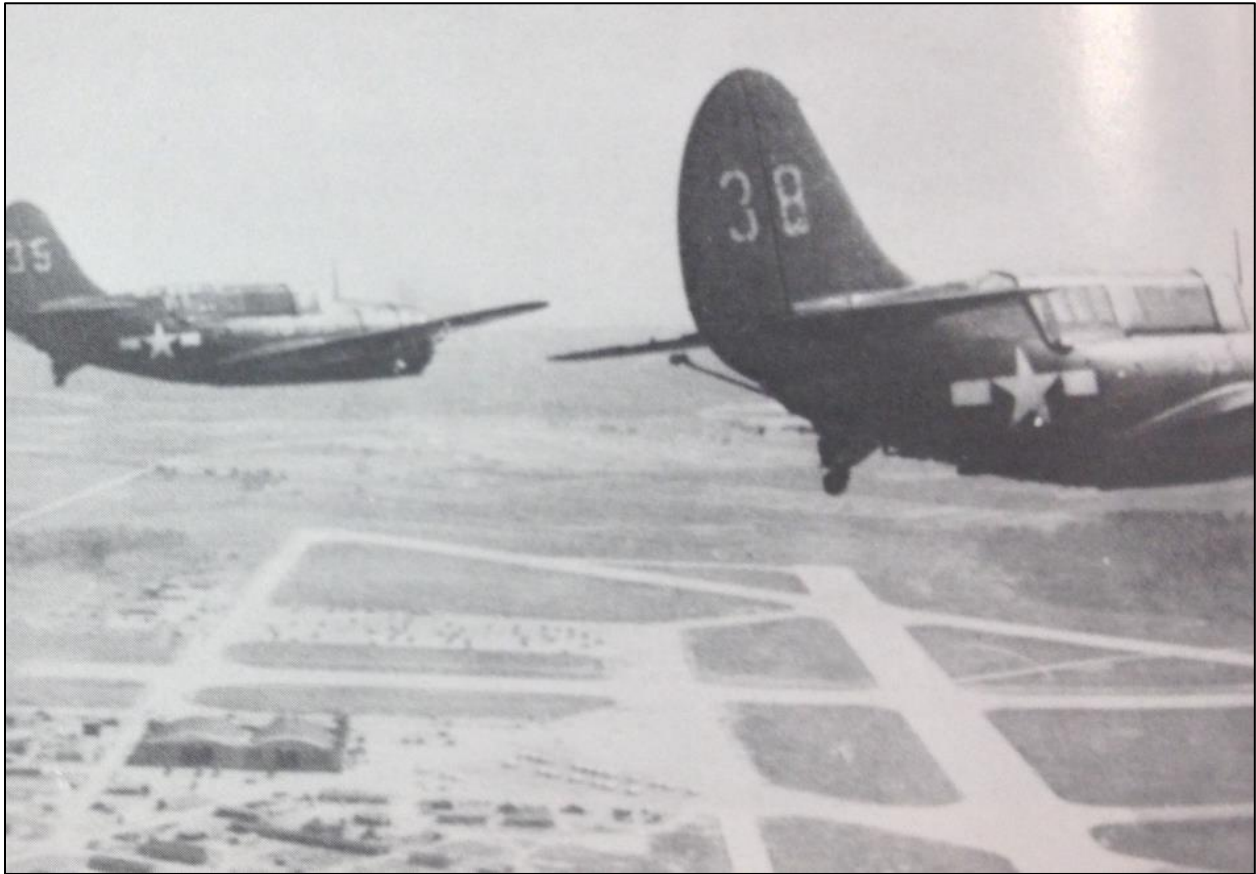
The growing presence of the military in the Hampton Roads area served to dampen the effects of the Great Depression. This, however, was not the sole reason the area was able to fare better than most during this time period. Owing to its location, the area benefitted from a diversified economy that included a strong seafood industry as well as tourism, recreation, and small-business enterprises that kept the local economy more stable (Salmon and Salmon 2007:115).

During the years leading up to World War II, military personnel, construction, and other support workers flooded into the Hampton Roads area. This sudden influx created a significant housing shortage. For African Americans, this crisis was particularly acute as housing was severely limited. Seatack originally referred to a large portion of the oceanfront area, but by the late nineteenth century, it typically referred to the community of African Americans who lived just to the west of the Virginia Beach resorts (Gaudio 2008). Seatack was home to African American tradesmen and businessmen and remains the oldest African-American community in Virginia. The onset of the war brought an influx of African Americans from the Carolinas and elsewhere seeking jobs as shipbuilding at the Newport News Shipbuilding and Dry Docks Company increased (Louis Berger & Associates, Inc. 1993:11). Many of these newcomers settled in the Seatack community, which grew with new plats and resubdivisions in the post-war years.

Figure 9 | Typical Seatack Bungalows along South Birdneck Road, view southwest

While the Navy base in Norfolk continued to grow and the city developed as a major East Coast port during the first half of the twentieth century, other military facilities were built in Princess Anne County. In 1940, the Navy purchased 328.95 acres of Potter's Farm south of Oceana and established Naval Auxiliary Station Oceana, which would become Naval Air Station (NAS) Oceana. The property was adjacent to the Norfolk Southern railroad line and was secured through eminent domain for \$35,000. With America on the verge of entering World War II and NAS Norfolk having only two grass runways, the new installation took on the vital role of an auxiliary field to train naval aviators (All Hands 2014). By 1941, six runways were completed, which were necessary to support the installation's rapid growth during World War II. In a one-year period, the number of aircraft and officers more than tripled and the number of enlisted men at the installation more than doubled (CNIC, NAS Oceana 2014). In 1943, the installation was designated Naval Auxiliary Air Station (NAAS) Oceana. Figure 10, taken in 1946, shows the large areas of undeveloped agricultural land around the installation.

**Figure 10 | Squadron VB-3 U.S. Navy Helldivers over Naval Auxiliary Air Station Oceana, 1946
(Mansfield 1989:174)**



The World War II-era military expansion outside of Norfolk was not limited to just Oceana. Virginia located its National Guard training center at Camp Pendleton just south of the Virginia Beach resort area. In 1941, 272 acres were obtained near Creeds and an additional 441 acres near Pungo for installations. In 1942, the Navy secured multiple tracts of land near the opening of Little Creek and established four bases: Camp Bradford, Camp Shelton, U.S. Naval Frontier Base, and Amphibious Training Base. These bases were constructed to keep pace with the growing manpower in the region as Hampton Roads and Oceana were thrown to “the forefront of wartime planning, training, and outfitting of aircraft carriers for battle in both the Atlantic and Pacific theaters of operation” (Varsinske 2002:146). Throughout World War II, each of these installations was steadily improved as more and more servicemen were stationed to the area. This collection of four specialized bases trained more than 200,000 Navy personnel and 160,000 Army and Marine Corps personnel during World War II (CNIC, NAB Little Creek 2014). Following the end of World War II, the four bases were consolidated and commissioned in 1945 as Naval Amphibious Base, Little Creek.

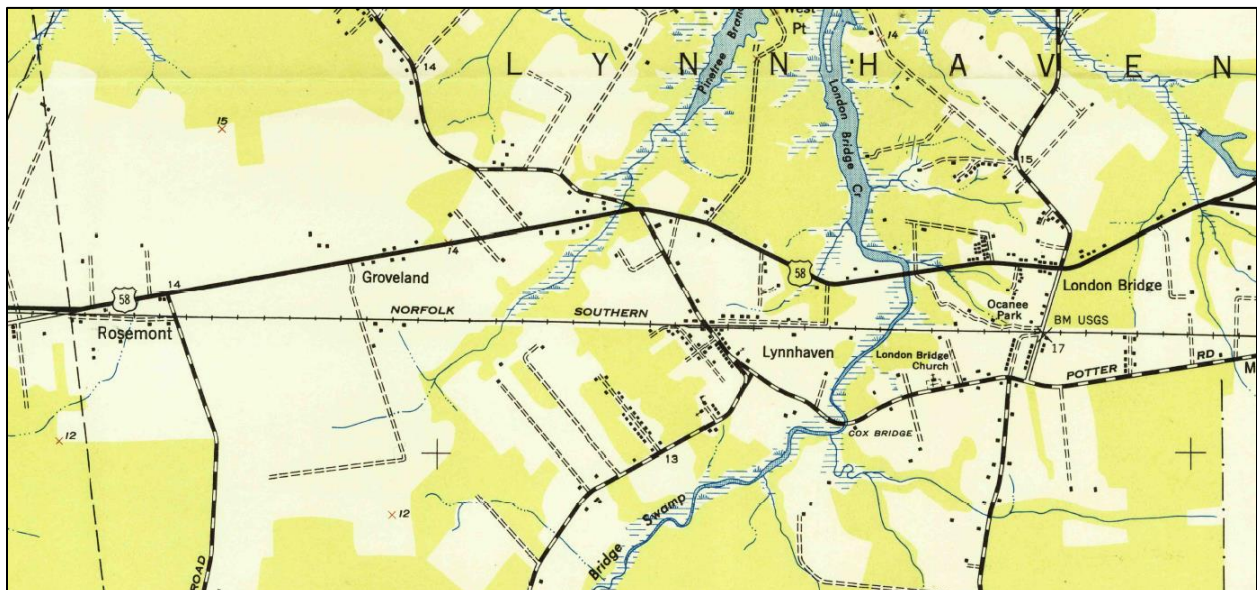
As World War II came to an end, Virginia Beach ceased being just a summer resort. Developers saw great opportunities to capitalize on the growing military population and government workers, and the vast open agricultural spaces between Norfolk and Virginia Beach. World War II left Virginia Beach and Princess Anne County at the threshold of an unprecedented era of infrastructure improvements and a housing boon brought on by the needs of an ever-increasing population (Yarsinske 2002:142).

2.2.8 New Dominion (1945-Present)

The greater Hampton Roads area experienced tremendous transformation and growth precipitated by World War II. These changes manifested themselves most noticeably in Princess Anne County, set between the expanding beach resort of Virginia Beach to the east and the burgeoning military town of Norfolk to the west. A rapidly increasing population brought fundamental changes and challenges not only to the physical landscape, but also to the political, social, and economic landscape of the area.

Pre-World War II development in Princess Anne County was primarily located in the small crossroads villages along Virginia Beach Boulevard/U.S. Route 58 and the Norfolk Southern rail line (Figure 11). Served by a patchwork of secondary roads intersecting Virginia Beach Boulevard, the surrounding countryside was sparsely populated.

Figure 11 | 1948 Topographical Map of Princess Anne County (USGS 1948)



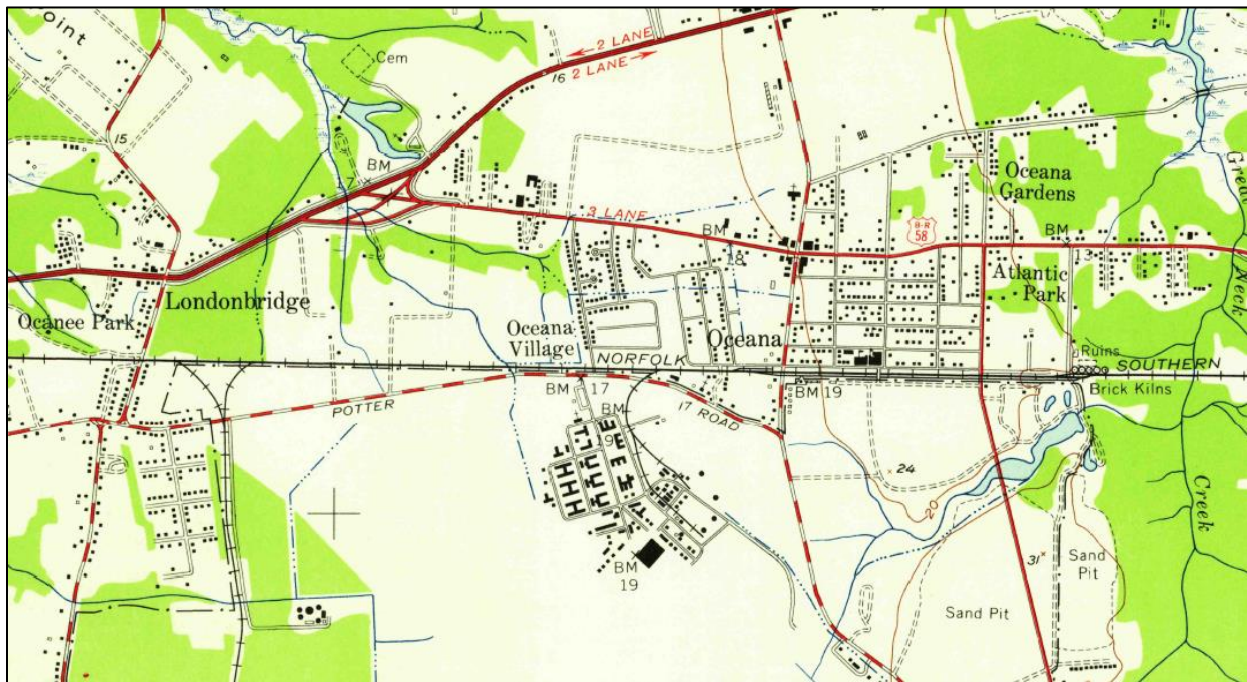
In the late 1940s, Dean S. Potter built a gas station and adjacent motel (no longer extant) at the corner of Laskin Road and what is now First Colonial Road. Potter was the first to call this area

“Hilltop” because it is located on a small rise. Potter is also credited with the construction of the first motel in Princess Anne County (Henry 1999).

The 1950s brought increased development to the project area, primarily along the oceanfront, and stretching west towards Norfolk along the Virginia Beach Boulevard/U.S. Route 58 corridor. The area reflects the evolution of the post-World War II environment as cities expanded along vast linear commercial corridors along major arterial roads. As development grew, traditional grid patterns (utilized in the layout of Norfolk and the town of Virginia Beach) were exchanged for linear arterial roads with non-connecting secondary roads and self-contained residential neighborhoods. This created a suburban landscape dependent on the automobile for virtually every aspect of daily living and forced many commercial retailers to move to the suburbs. This process was fueled by low-cost, long-term mortgages and programs developed by the Federal Housing Administration that created favorable conditions for home building and ownership specifically aimed at returning veterans and their families after World War II.

Virginia Beach Boulevard paralleled much of the Norfolk Southern line, which in an attempt to keep pace with the automobile, undertook a modernization of its equipment. Norfolk Southern bought new railcars that were much like streetcars but had the added benefit of being quieter and faster. However, due in part to an inability to modernize their rolling stock during both World Wars and the wide-scale rise in popularity of the automobile, Norfolk Southern discontinued its passenger rail service in 1947. In a sign of the times, its northern and southern rail lines were dismantled to make way for modern highways, and the east-west line was relegated to freight service. In 1948, Virginia Beach Boulevard was expanded to four lanes with service roads (*The Virginian-Pilot* 1999). Eventually, most of the route between Norfolk and Virginia Beach was also designated U.S. Route 58. The City of Virginia Beach grew inland along Virginia Beach Boulevard/U.S. Route 58 during the mid-twentieth century. New commercial development marked the evolution of the urban environment and the rise of the post-World War II landscape as development rapidly replaced agricultural fields.

The Oceana and London Bridge communities benefitted from their proximity to NAAS Oceana, which saw continued expansion in the post-World War II era (Figure 12). The area north of NAAS Oceana grew the fastest, as it provided the most transportation options. Commercial development followed residential development along Virginia Beach Boulevard/U.S. Route 58. The Colony Motel was one of many mid-century motels built in the late 1950s to accommodate the steadily increasing number of travelers and tourists visiting the area (Figure 13). In its advertisements, this large, Colonial Revival-style motor court boasted of its 27 air-conditioned and heated rooms. It was modern and easily accessible to passing motorists on their way to the oceanfront and is typical of mid-twentieth century roadside architecture that soon became common throughout the area.

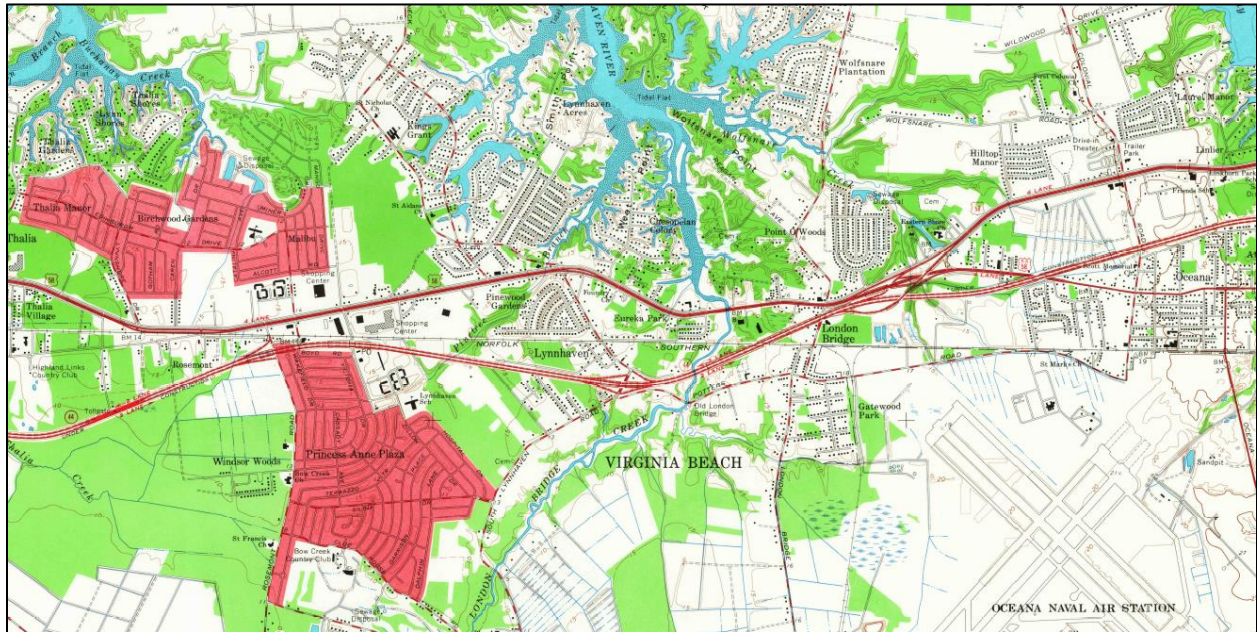
Figure 12 | Princess Anne Topographic Map (USGS 1955)**Figure 13 | Colony Motel, Virginia Beach (VBPL 2014)**

By 1952, NAAS Oceana had become too large to be a subordinate to NAS Norfolk and was renamed Naval Air Station (NAS) Oceana; the following year it was designated as a Master Jet Base. With this new designation, the installation required further expansion of its infrastructure to meet the growing demands of the Navy's carrier fleet. In 1960, Congress appropriated nearly \$1 million for NAS Oceana and by the end of that decade, the installation's facilities were valued at \$90 million (Sadler & Whitehead Architects 2012:11.2). Improvements continued into the twenty-first century as the mission of the installation evolved. In 2013, \$37 million was allocated for the refurbishment of three runways and \$19 million to update Naval Auxiliary Landing Field Fentress (C-SPAN 2013).

The increase in operations at NAS Oceana sparked the construction of many new subdivisions in the area, marking the beginning of the end for most of the large farms between Norfolk and Virginia Beach and points south. The agricultural fields and large swaths of undeveloped land proved ideal for home builders. In the 1960s, the population of Virginia Beach more than doubled. Of the new arrivals, approximately 95 percent were white (Fernandes 2009). Conversely, Norfolk and Portsmouth experienced a drastic decline in their white populations as these residents moved to new subdivisions in Virginia Beach.

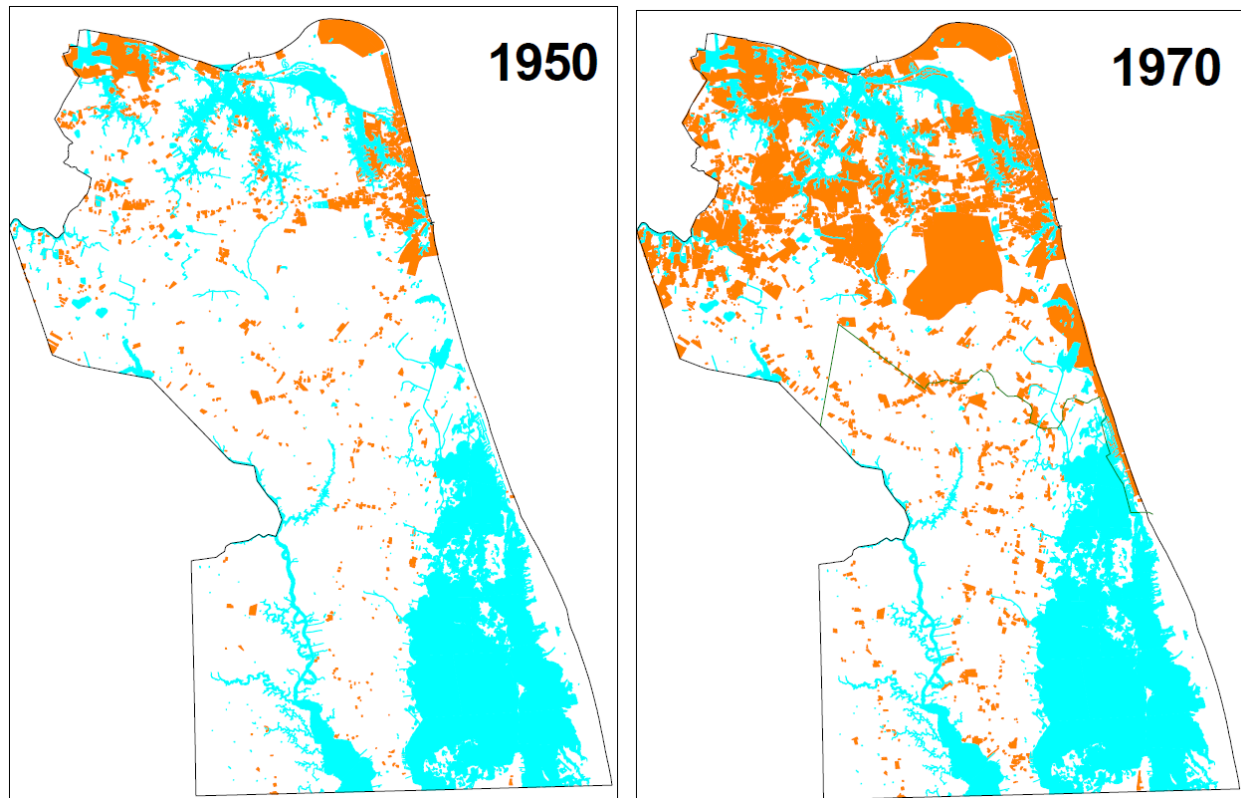
Between 1952 and 1974, the geopolitical landscape of Hampton Roads was transformed. During this period, five cities in the Hampton Roads area expanded their boundaries to incorporate land from surrounding counties. The rush to annex large swaths of land before another city could, with proceedings often conducted in secrecy, reflected the goals and fears of residents and city managers as southeast Virginia experienced rapid population growth in the mid-twentieth century (Mansfield 1989:195-196).

In 1963, the City of Virginia Beach merged with Princess Anne County. The merger formed a 310-square-mile city dubbed, "The World's Largest Resort City" (Mansfield 1989:195-196). Today, the cities of Virginia Beach and Norfolk share a border. The City of Virginia Beach faced a host of challenges following the annexation of Princess Anne County; chief amongst them was how to provide the services necessary for one of the East Coast's fastest growing cities that included a nationally-popular beach resort and numerous military installations (Mansfield 1989:196).

Figure 14 | Princess Anne U.S. Topographic Map (USGS 1965)

By the 1980s, the population of Virginia Beach had again doubled from 111,400 in 1963 to 262,199 residents in 1980 (City of Virginia Beach 2009). The increase in residents is illustrated by the numerous large-scale residential developments either completed or under construction in 1965 between Norfolk and Virginia Beach (Figure 15).

Figure 15 | Virginia Beach, 100 Years of Change (orange indicates platted lots, ComIT GIS, City of Virginia Beach, n.d.)



Located in Kempsville, the Carolanne Farm subdivision was developed in 1956 by Buxbaum and Warranch, Inc. Initial interest in the 700-home neighborhood at the edge of suburbia was positive, as many properties were sold ranging in price from \$14,150 to \$16,250. Indicative of the period, the six models offered reflected traditional styles influenced heavily by the Colonial Revival. By the 1960s, most of the lots were sold and with the suburban boom, many of the existing homes escalated in value. The neighborhood boasted its proximity to new shopping centers, schools, and Interstate 64 (*The Beacon* 1968).

This advertising blitz was a common trend among new-home builders and developers as developments continually moved farther north and south of the Virginia Beach Boulevard/U.S. Route 58 corridor. The 450-plus-home Pocahontas Village subdivision was developed in the early 1960s southeast of the intersection of the Norfolk and Southern rail line and Holland Road. Prices for the contemporary single-family dwellings ranged from \$13,000 to \$20,000 (*The Beacon* 1967). The neighborhood was predominantly home to military families.

Catering to the upper-middle class was the Point-O-View subdivision developed in 1963. Located in Kempsville on the old W. J. Overholt farm just south of the Norfolk Southern rail line,

the 117-acre neighborhood was platted by Woodrow Reasor, who also developed the nearby neighborhoods of Homestead, Fairfield, and Red Mill Farm. Construction was undertaken by the E. V. Williams Company. Characterized by its old trees and 45-acre pond, the ranch-style homes in Point-O-View ranged from \$25,000 to \$30,000 (*The Beacon* 1968). By the late 1960s, belying the neighborhood's popularity and further strain on local housing stock, prices for new homes in Point-O-View exceeded \$40,000.

In 1975, facing pressure from African-American leaders, the City of Virginia Beach made improvements to many of its historically black neighborhoods, including Atlantic Park, Doyletown, and Seatack. These neighborhoods were mostly ignored during the intense mid-twentieth-century building boom. As a result, most had unpaved roads, were not connected to the city water system, did not have streetlamps, and lacked sidewalks. The improvement process took nearly 21 years to complete, and during that time, many of the historically black neighborhoods were gentrified and long-time residents were forced to move due to rising property taxes (Weintraub 1996).

Catering to the needs of the immense new suburban development in the area were strip malls and shopping centers. This form of commerce quickly became ingrained in the fabric of the area due to the absence of a "downtown" core and a reliance on automobiles typical of large-scale suburban development. Because of the success of large shopping centers, many of the historic-age commercial buildings were either torn down or neglected beyond repair. By the 1980s, more than 125 shopping centers had been constructed in the area (Mansfield 1989:196). When Lynnhaven Mall opened in 1981 less than a mile west of NAS Oceana, it was not only the largest mall in the Hampton Roads area, but also one of the largest on the east coast. Churches also were constructed in the area to serve the local communities. These large buildings reflected the popular Revival styles and were often located on busy arterial roadways.

Starting as early as the late 1950s, the skyline of Virginia Beach was transformed, as old resort hotels and oceanfront cottages were torn down and replaced by high-rise hotels and apartment buildings (Figure 16). The once small-town ocean community of Virginia Beach was updated with new infrastructure including sidewalks, overhead lighting, signage, and landscaping (Salmon and Salmon 2007:183).

Figure 16 | Virginia Beach, View South in 1961 (Virginia Tech Image Base 2014)

By the 1960s, Virginia Beach was in “the middle of a motel construction program unrivaled in past years.” This building boom also included the construction of the Virginia Beach Civic Center (DHR #134-0450), which was a top priority of developers (Yarsinske 2002:171). Completed in 1958, the civic center (demolished 2005) made a splash architecturally, as it was the first aluminum-domed building of its type in the United States (Figure 17). In 1984, the City of Virginia Beach took a step to ensure the future vitality of the resort destination. Through the Resort Area Advisory Committee (Resort Advisory Committee), the city earmarked millions of dollars to address items identified as integral to the continued development of the Virginia Beach oceanfront as a world-class resort.

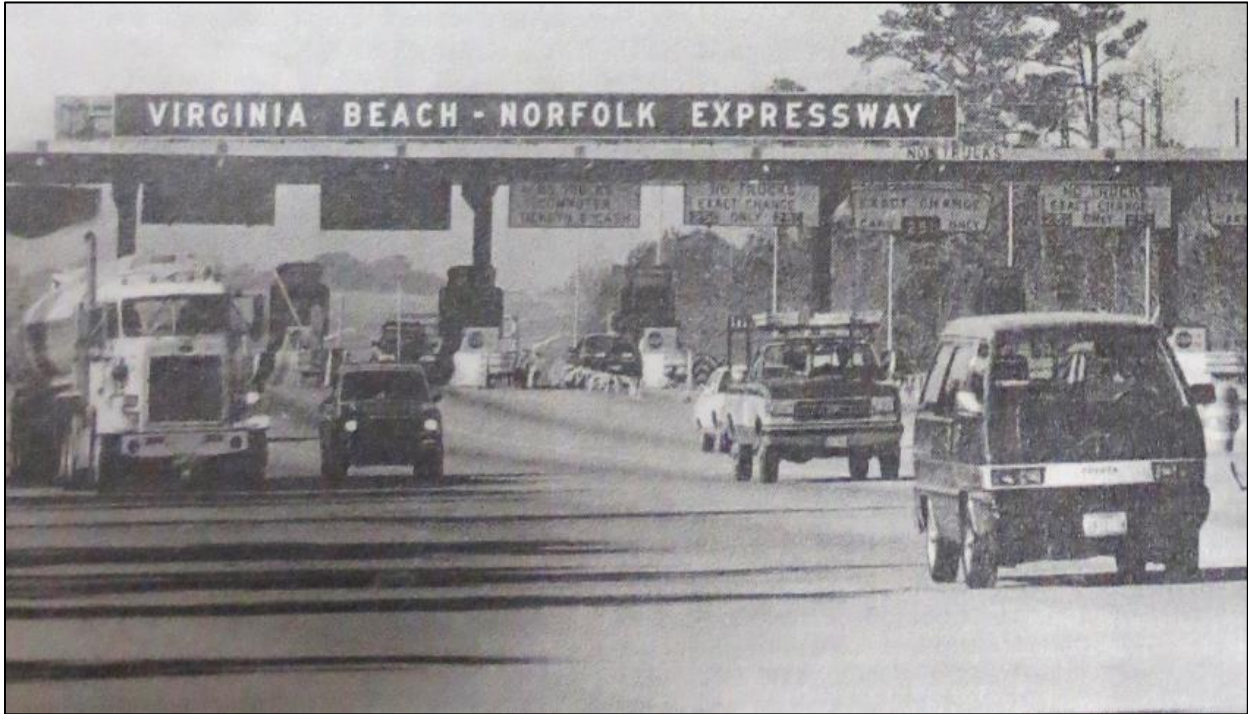
Figure 17 | Virginia Beach Civic Center (Virginia Film Office 2014)

The success of the area's economy since the mid-twentieth century has been dependent on a viable transportation system. Much turmoil came to the area during the 1950s and 1960s due to the increased population and building boom. Pressure on Virginia Beach Boulevard sprouted from the scores of housing developments established in the mid-twentieth century, increasing numbers of tourists flocking to the beach, and scores of retail and commercial businesses established along the roadway (Figure 18). Between 1961 and 1962, there were nearly 1,000 accidents on the Princess Anne County portion of the Boulevard (*Ledger Star* 1963).

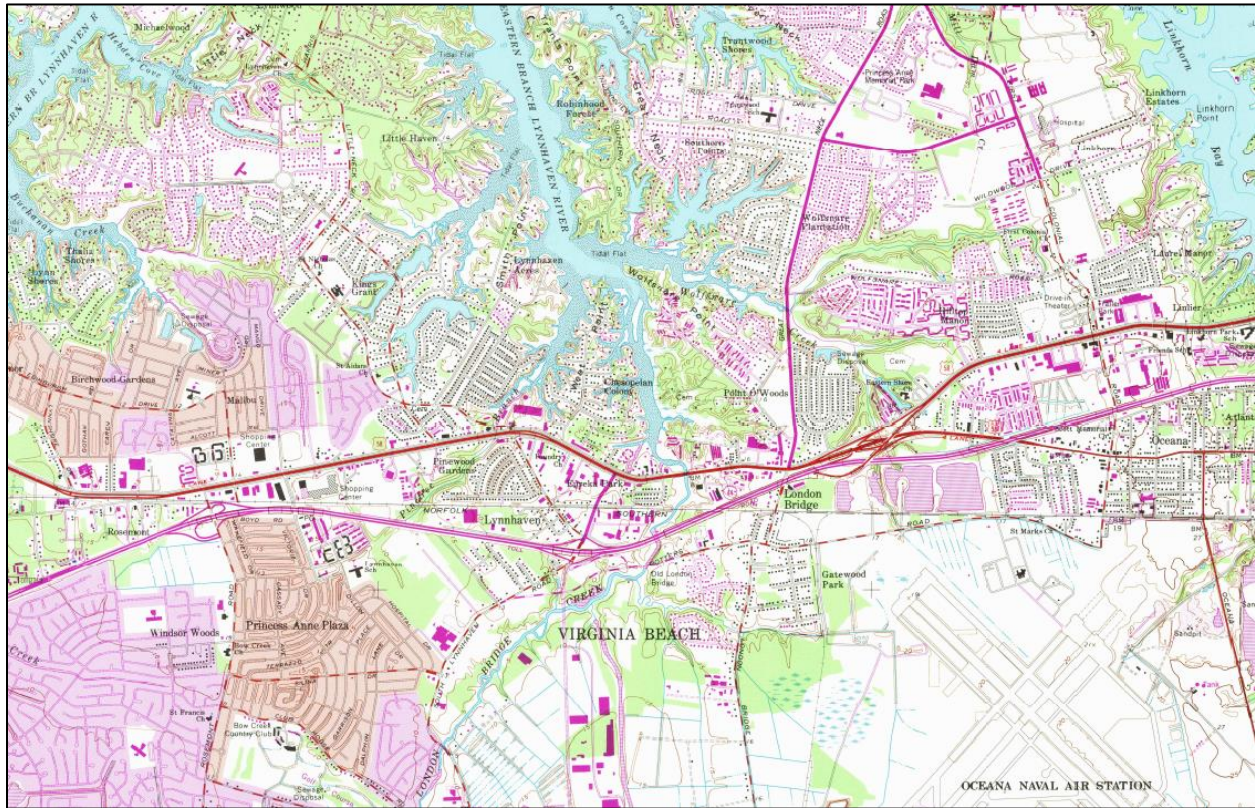
Figure 18 | Virginia Beach Boulevard in 1963 (*Ledger-Star* 25 March 1963)



In 1967, the transportation system was bolstered with the opening of the Virginia Beach-Norfolk Expressway (Figure 19). This roadway was the first new east-west thoroughfare to be built in nearly forty years and relieved congestion on Virginia Beach Boulevard. The expressway was a 12-mile toll road built to interstate highway standards to link the Virginia Beach oceanfront with Interstate 64 at Norfolk. Originally designated State Route 44, the expressway had four lanes and was widened in the 1980s to six lanes, and then again in the 1990s to eight lanes. In 1995, the tolls were removed and in 1999, the former expressway was designated Interstate 264 (Virginia Department of Transportation 2010).

Figure 19 | Virginia Beach-Norfolk Expressway in 1991 (Barrow 1991)

Today, the City of Virginia Beach continues to attract millions of visitors to its beaches and resorts lining the Atlantic Ocean. Defined by its military presence, the community continues to enjoy the economic stability afforded by the U.S. military, the largest employer in Virginia Beach, with an annual impact on the local economy in excess of \$1 billion (C-Span 2013). Housing and new development continues to be at the forefront of community concerns in Virginia Beach. Available land has become scarce, which has resulted in the demolition of older buildings for the construction of new buildings, often high-density housing. Large commercial buildings and strip malls have infilled much of the area lining the major roadways (Figure 20). As a result, the turn of the twenty-first century saw property values increase and the displacement of many lower-income residents.

Figure 20 | Princess Anne Topographic Map (USGS 1986)

In 2012, the City of Virginia Beach was estimated to have approximately 447,021 residents with a median household income of \$65,980. Nearly 70 percent of the population was Caucasian, with African Americans the largest minority group at approximately 20 percent (U.S. Census Bureau 2012).

3.0 Research Design and Project Methods

The purpose of this Phase 1 reconnaissance-level survey is to begin to identify historic properties in the VBTES APE and to develop a context for the project corridor. This report is only the first phase of identification efforts for the VBTES. The current APE includes all three alignment alternatives being evaluated as part of the Draft EIS. This APE is approximately 11 miles long and contains approximately 1,300 properties built between 1756 and the present. They are typically residential and commercial with some religious and educational uses. For this study, because the build date for the project is anticipated to be 2020, all properties constructed in or prior to 1970 are considered historic-age. Of these 1,300 properties in the APE, 516 were built pre-1971. The median age of these properties is 1957, while the mean (average) age is 1953.

Table 2 | Historic-Age (pre-1971) Resources in the APE

Date of Construction	Number of Properties Built
1700s	1
1800s	3
1900-1918	6
1919-1942	109
1943-1944	0
1945-1955	118
1956-1965	200
1966-1970	79
	516

After completion of the DEIS and the selection of the preferred alternative, the project APE will be finalized in consultation with the SHPO and other consulting parties. A full reconnaissance-level survey will then be conducted of historic-age resources in the APE and an archaeological survey will be completed.

3.1 Background Research

A historic literature and background research was conducted at the VDHR, Library of Virginia, Virginia Beach Historical Society, Virginia Beach Public Library, and the Virginia Beach Circuit Clerk's Office. Historic maps, plats, photographs, architectural site files, county histories, newspapers, NHRP listings, and previous archaeological and cultural resources survey reports were consulted at these facilities. Numerous secondary sources were also reviewed.

3.2 Project Methods

3.2.1 Archaeological Field Methods

In 2010-2011, Gray and Pape conducted a windshield/surface walkover archaeological survey of the corridor. During the fieldwork, each of the proposed station locations, a proposed maintenance facility parcel, and proposed new rail corridors were visited by a Secretary of the Interior-qualified archaeologist. Each of these areas was thoroughly photographed. Maps were prepared showing the project area, permanent landmarks, topographic and vegetational variation, and sources of disturbance. In addition, notes were maintained on surface and vegetation conditions, soil characteristics, and the source and extent of any disturbance. No subsurface excavation was conducted during this phase of the archaeological investigations.

3.2.2 Architectural Field Methods

The architectural investigation for this report was based on two windshield-level surveys conducted in May and December 2013. Efforts were focused on summarizing the character and history of the corridor, categorizing building types and patterns of development, and identifying previously listed or eligible NRHP resources in the APE. Digital photographs were taken of typical building types and styles, as well as more unique properties that should be further investigated for the evaluation phase of the project.

3.3 Previously Identified Cultural Resources and Investigations

Several previous cultural resource studies have been conducted in the Virginia Beach area and the project corridor. Additionally, several important prehistoric and historic archaeological sites have been investigated by professional archaeologists, and the results of these investigations have been presented in master's theses, Ph.D. dissertations, professional papers, and professional journals. Finally, many archaeological sites have been recorded on state inventory forms by avocational archaeologists and others in the Norfolk/Virginia Beach area. According to VDHR's site file archives, there are 12 previously recorded archaeological resources located within or immediately adjacent to the current APE (Table 3).

Table 3 | Previously Identified Archaeological Resources Within the APE

VDHR Site No.	Type/Function	Temporal Association	NRHP Status
44VB0001	Wolfsnare		Unknown
44VB0060	Kempsville Canal	18th Century	Not Eligible
44VB0094	Farmstead (Francis Land House)		Unknown
44VB0215	Domestic	19th/20th Century	Not Eligible
44VB0216	Trash Scatter		Unknown
44VB0217	Camp, Trash Scatter		Unknown
44VB0218	Trash Scatter		Unknown
44VB0232	Domestic	19th/20th Century	Not Eligible
44VB0233	Domestic	20th Century	Unknown
44VB0302	Domestic	19th/20th Century	Not Eligible
44VB0303	Potter's Corner, Dwelling, single		Not eligible
44VB0350	Dreary Site, Dwelling, single		Unknown

Sites 44VB0232 and 44VB0233 were identified by Virginia Commonwealth University during a Phase I survey of London Bridge Road for the VDOT (Ryder et al. 1994). Site 44VB0232 was considered potentially eligible for nomination to the NRHP and was investigated at the Phase II level. Site 44VB0232 was identified as the remains of a mid-eighteenth century through early-twentieth-century site with some subsurface components. The site was evaluated as not eligible because a large portion of 44VB0232 had been previously disturbed by expansion of London Bridge Road (Ryder et al. 1996).

In addition to the sites located along London Bridge Road, Site 44VB0060, the Kempsville Canal, crosses under the current Norfolk Southern rail line. No features related to the canal are present in the project area, and because no additional construction will take place in this area, the proposed project will not affect this resource.

Several additional cultural resource investigations have been conducted within close proximity to the project area and should be mentioned. Phase I investigations have been conducted at NAS Oceana by Goodwin and Associates, Inc., in association with proposed vegetation maintenance and management areas and wetlands restoration. This survey resulted in the identification of Site 44VB0302, a small cluster of twentieth century artifacts associated with a possible farm outbuilding related to the James/Bell House. This site was not considered eligible for inclusion in the NRHP (Davis et al. 1993). A Phase I survey of the Corporate Woods property, just south of the Norfolk Southern rail line, identified one isolated find of three fragments of whiteware (James River Institute for Archaeology 1994).

Phase I survey of improvements to Oceana Boulevard have been conducted on 3 occasions (Egghart and Boyd 1991; Hodges and Stephenson 1997; Stuck 1997). Several archaeological resources were identified south of the proposed project area, but none of these resources were considered potentially eligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

Upper Wolfsnare, Site 44VB0001, has been investigated on three separate occasions for the Princess Anne County Historical Society (Kelso 1975; Edwards and Barka 1979; Samford et al. 1987). Kelso (1975) performed an exploratory investigation in an attempt to identify early entrance steps at the house, which recovered eighteenth-century brickwork and artifacts. The College of William and Mary's anthropology department conducted investigations designed to identify the presence of outbuildings associated with the early occupation of the house (Edwards and Barka 1979). This report identified nine features associated with use of the grounds immediately surrounding the house and concluded that the majority of the three-acre parcel surrounding the house had been badly disturbed by modern activities in the area. Finally, limited excavations were conducted around the foundation of Upper Wolfsnare prior to a waterproofing effort in 1986 (Samford et al. 1987). Mostly twentieth-century refuse and strata were identified in a disturbed context, with the exception of some eighteenth-century materials recovered from the builders trench.

A Phase I survey of Birdneck Road identified 32 architectural resources north and south of the Norfolk Southern rail line. All of these structures dated to the 1940s and none were considered eligible for inclusion in the NRHP (Louis Berger and Associates, Inc. 1993). With respect to architectural surveys, there have been two major surveys in Virginia Beach that were conducted in the vicinity of the current project corridor. Portions of the project area were surveyed in 1992 by Frazier Associates in their "Reconnaissance Architectural Survey Report, City of Virginia Beach." At that time, properties on North Lynnhaven Road at the railroad crossing were surveyed as well as several in the London Bridge, Oceana, and Seatack communities. The report described Oceana as one of the best-preserved early-twentieth-century communities that survives in Virginia Beach with one of the finest groupings of architecture from this period in the northern part of the city. Seatack was recommended as significant as an intact, early twentieth-century African-American community. However, both of these communities have undergone significant changes in the last 20 years and should be re-evaluated for NRHP eligibility.

One of the most recent surveys of the area was completed in 2011 by Cultural Resources, Inc. The *Phase 1 Cultural Resources Survey for Proposed Improvements to the Landstown to Virginia Beach 230kV Transmission Line, City of Virginia Beach, Virginia* documented 136 previously recorded architectural resources, 2 previously recorded archaeological sites, 111 newly recorded architectural resources, and 1 newly recorded archaeological site. The SHPO

concurred that many of the resources outside of the proposed Oceana and Seatack Historic Districts are not eligible for the NRHP. However, consensus was not reached on the eligibility of the Oceana and Seatack Historic Districts, both of which are located within the VBTES APE.

Table 4 | Previously Identified Architectural Resources Within the APE

VDHR #	Name	NRHP Status
134-0009	Eastern Shore Chapel	Demolished, 1952
134-0034	Upper Wolfsnare	NRHP Listed
134-0127	House, 2208 Laskin Road	Unknown
134-0145	House, 2136 Laskin Road	Unknown
134-0146	House, adj. Rt 58	Unknown
134-0148	House, 2220 Laskin Road	Unknown
134-0418	Virginia Beach Town Hall, 401 19th Street	Unknown
134-0450	Virginia Beach Convention Center	Demolished
134-0451	Virginia Beach Fire Station #11	Demo/Alteration
134-0488	House, 1628 Southern Boulevard	Demolished
134-0517	House, 436 Terrapin Hill Road	Unknown
134-0542	House, 1264 Tanger Trail	Demolished
134-0555	Lynnhaven Presbyterian Church	Unknown
134-0556	Lynnhaven Store, 101 S Lynnhaven Road	Unknown
134-0557	House, 2416 Potters Road	Demolished
134-0558/134-5010	House, 2628-2632 Southern Boulevard	Unknown
134-0559/134-5112	House, 145 London Bridge Road (121-B Great Neck Road)	Not Eligible
134-0560	House, 201 Great Neck Road	Not Eligible/demolished
134-0561/134-5142-0001	Sears Kit House, 109 London Bridge Road (S Great Neck Road)	Not Eligible
134-0563	House, 110 S Great Neck Road	Demolished
134-0567	Mount Olive Church	Not eligible
134-0639	House, Oceana Boulevard	Demolished
134-0640	House, Louisa Avenue	Demolished, 2002
134-0643	House, New Fork Avenue	Unknown
134-0644	House, New Fork Avenue	Unknown
134-0654	Store, Rt. 44	Unknown
134-0655	House, Rt. 44	Unknown
134-0656	House, Rt. 44	Unknown
134-0948	House, 138 S Great Neck Road	Not Eligible/demolished
134-0968	Oceana Historic District	Proposed

VDHR #	Name	NRHP Status
134-0969	Seatack Historic District	Proposed
134-0974	SOS - Tidewater Veterans Memorial	Unknown
134-0975	SOS - "G" in Motion	Unknown
134-0976	SOS - Tunnel Vision	Unknown
134-5001	Virginia Beach Jail	Unknown
134-5003	Laskin Road Bridge #1804, Rt 58, Linkhorn Bay	Not Eligible
134-5004	Commercial Building	Demolished
134-5005	Gettel House, 5620 Parliament Drive	Unknown
134-5006	House, 6508 Parliament Road	Unknown
134-5007	House, 5544 Parliament Drive	Unknown
134-5008	House, 2956 Ansol Lane	Unknown
134-5009	House, 109 S Lynnhaven	Demolished
134-5011	House, 1847 S Streamline Drive	Unknown
134-5012	St. Mark's AME Church	Unknown
134-5013	Warehouse, Southern Boulevard and First Colonial Road	Unknown
134-5014	House, 1656 Southern Boulevard	Unknown
134-5015	House, 1117 Southern Boulevard	Not Eligible/demolished
134-5016	House, 1133 Southern Boulevard	Not Eligible/demolished
134-5022	House, 1716 Washington Street	Unknown
134-5023	House, 1822 19th Street	Unknown
134-5024	Fentress Beauty Salon, 19th Street	Unknown
134-5025	House, 810 18th Street	Unknown
134-5026	Cuffees Motel, 723 19th Street	Demolished
134-5027	Oceana Naval Air Station Historic District	Potentially Eligible
134-5114	House, 2524 Potters Road	Not Eligible
134-5142	London Bridge Historic District	Not Eligible
134-5145	Norfolk & Virginia Beach Railroad	Eligible
134-5166	Canal Remnant	Not Eligible
134-5259	House, 1133 Old Virginia Beach Road	Not Eligible
134-5263/134-0968	House, 1116 Virginia Beach Boulevard	Not Eligible
134-5264/134-0968	House, 1125 Virginia Beach Boulevard	Not Eligible
134-5265	House, 1096 Virginia Beach Boulevard	Not Eligible
134-5272/134-0969	House, 153 N Birdneck Road	Not Eligible
134-5273/134-0969	House, 149 N Birdneck Road	Not Eligible
134-5274/134-0969	House, 145 N Birdneck Road	Not Eligible
134-5275/134-0969	House, 141 N Birdneck Road	Not Eligible

VDHR #	Name	NRHP Status
134-5276/134-0969	House, 137 N Birdneck Road	Not Eligible
134-5284	House, 401 Birdneck Circle	Not Eligible
134-5285	School, Laskin Road Annex, 1413 Laskin Road	Not Eligible

Of the previously surveyed resources, only one is listed in the NRHP and two are NRHP-eligible (Table 4). Upper Wolfsnare (DHR #134-0034), a ca. 1759 brick dwelling with rich interior paneling, was listed in the NRHP in 1975. It originally stood on 7,000 acres and was slated for demolition by the state for right-of-way for the Norfolk-Virginia Beach Expressway. It is located immediately to the north of the former NSRR ROW. The land to its east is used for quarrying activities, and a cellular tower has been erected within sight of the house. This is the proposed location for the Vehicle Storage and Maintenance Facility (Figure 21).

Figure 21 | Proposed location of the Vehicle Storage and Maintenance Facility on Potters Road, view north



The NAS Oceana Historic District (DHR #134-5027) is located directly to the south of the former NSRR ROW (Figure 22). Currently, the entire installation (approximately 5,400 acres) is included

within the draft APE; however, a proposed maintenance facility that was to be located in the northwest corner of the installation has been moved to the north side of the NSRR ROW and will no longer be on NAS Oceana property. As such, the APE near the installation will be revised to only include areas where the corridor would be visible.

Figure 22 | NAS Oceana (DHR #134-5027), view south from Potters Road



Finally, the VBTES is studying the reuse of the former Norfolk Southern rail corridor, which is historically known as the Norfolk and Virginia Beach Railroad (Figure 23, Figure 24, DHR #134-5145). Constructed in 1882 by Colonel Marshall Parks and a group of other investors, the narrow-gauge rail line was designed to provide an easy way to shuttle residents of Norfolk to the Virginia Beach Oceanfront. The east-west rail corridor is credited as one of the major contributing factors to the development of the resort community on the Virginia Beach shoreline. The line was upgraded to a standard-gauge line; however, service ended in 2004 and Norfolk Southern abandoned the line in 2007, eventually selling it to the City of Virginia Beach. In 2008, the Norfolk and Virginia Beach Railroad corridor was determined eligible for listing in the NRHP under Criterion A.

Figure 23 | Norfolk and Virginia Beach Railroad (DHR #134-5145), looking east



Figure 24 | Bridge over Thalia Creek, Norfolk and Virginia Beach Railroad (DHR #134-5145), looking northeast



4.0 Recommendations for Further Study and Evaluation

After the preferred alternative for the VBTES is selected, the project APE will be refined in consultation with the SHPO and other consulting parties, and a full cultural resources survey will be conducted that meets both VDHR requirements and those of the Section 106 regulations.

Background research should be continued at various repositories to gather information about past land uses, sites, and residential developments. Historic maps, historic photographs, plats, and aerial photographs of the project area, and information about past land uses and modifications will be gathered.

4.1 Recommendations for Archaeology Survey and Evaluation

Figure 25 | Point-O-View, 117-121 S Parliament Drive, view northwest



4.2 Views of Properties in the APE

Figure 26 | Virginia Beach Town Hall, Arctic Avenue, view southwest (DHR # 134-5001)



Figure 27 | Shotgun House, Seatack, view northeast (DHR # 134-5283)



Figure 28 | 857 Virginia Beach Boulevard, Direct Motorsports, view southwest



Figure 29 | 404-408 19th Street, typical beach bungalows, view west



Figure 30 | 1108 Bluebird Drive, Bluebird Acres, view north-northwest



Figure 31 | 2512 Lynnrivier Drive, Eureka Park, view north



Figure 32 | 101 North Lynnhaven Road, Harbour at Lynnhaven Station, concrete aggregate, view north



Figure 33 | Lynnhaven Grocery (DHR #134-0556), view west



Figure 34 | Colonial Revival-style Utility Buildings (Bell Atlantic on left, VA Beach Sewage Pumping Facility on right)



Figure 35 | 3707 Virginia Beach Boulevard, view east

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Appendix A: Draft APE Maps

